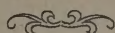


# The North Central Association Quarterly



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# THE North Central Association QUARTERLY

Vol. III

DECEMBER, 1928

No. 3

## News Notes and Editorial Comments

By C. O. DAVIS

### NEXT MEETING

The next annual meeting of the Association will be held in Chicago, March 4 and 15, 1929. The Commissions will meet a day or so earlier. The Hotel Stevens is to be headquarters.

### THE MARCH ISSUE

The March issue of the Quarterly will contain the roster, a reprint of the constitution, the tentative program for the meeting in March, and other items of immediate interest to the Association in preparing for the Chicago gathering.

### COMMITTEE MEETINGS

The Executive Committee of the Association met in Chicago, November 9, and gave attention to a number of pressing items of business.

The Committee on Standards for Use in the Reorganization of Secondary School Curricula will meet at the City Club, Chicago, at nine o'clock on December 8, to review certain studies made by the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula.

### ANOTHER LEADER GONE

It is with sorrow that the Quarterly has to announce the death of Professor H. L. Miller of the University of Wisconsin, October 13, 1928. Professor Miller was one of the Association's workers.

### THE ADDRESSES OF TWO PRESIDENTS

This issue contains the addresses delivered before the Association last March by President Frank and President Little. These will be read with keen interest by all.

### DEAM AND FRENCH PROMOTED

At a meeting of the Executive Committee of the Association held in Chicago November 9, the resignation of Dr. L. W. Smith of Joliet, Illinois, from the chairmanship of the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula was accepted. Dr. Smith, it will be recalled, has accepted the superintendency of schools in Berkeley, California.

The Executive Committee at this same



meeting elected Mr. Thomas Deam of Joliet to succeed Dr. Smith as chairman of the Commission and also elected Mr. Will French of Lincoln, Nebraska, to the position of secretary of the Commission. This vacancy was caused by the promotion of Mr. Deam to the chairmanship of the Commission.

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### FEDERAL AID

The following brief announcement from Professor Judd will be of interest. He says:

The committee of the North Central Association which was appointed at the last meeting to secure, if possible, the assistance of the Bureau of Education in making a general study of secondary education in the United States has been active in promoting the purpose for which it was appointed. This committee has held several meetings. It has conducted two hearings in Washington, one before the Education Committee of the House of Representatives. This hearing was originally called by the committee of the House for the purpose of hearing the

request of the National Education Association for a Department of Education. The representatives devoted a forenoon however, to the special request presented by the North Central Association. A number of conferences were held with Commissioner Tigert before his retirement and he expressed himself as very sympathetic with the plan. The Secretary of the Department of the Interior the Hon. R. O. West, has also given attention to the matter and is interested in promoting such an inquiry.

The committee was given an opportunity, after drawing up a careful statement of its plans, to present these to the Director of the Budget, General Lord who heard the full committee in his office in Washington and expressed himself as interested in this type of enterprise.

The outcome of these efforts will appear when Congress goes into session in December. The committee has received most hospitable attention from all who have been approached and believes that the enterprise has commanded the receptive attention of officers of the federal government.

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### SECRETARIES OF REGIONAL ACCREDITING AGENCIES.

In order that interested parties may have readily at hand the names of the secretaries of the various regional associations, these are given here as of August, 1928.

New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Professor W. B. Jacobs, Brown University, Providence, Rhode Island.

Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, Professor Phil. Soulen, University of Idaho, Moscow.

Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, Vice-Provost George William McClelland, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, President Guy E. Snavely, Birmingham-Southern College, Birmingham, Alabama.

North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Professor J. B. Edmonson, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.



# Faculty Qualifications for Junior Colleges

By M. E. HAGGERTY,

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

In the meetings of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools the scholastic and professional qualifications of college instructors have been repeatedly discussed. The scholastic qualifications have been the subject of legislation and specific accrediting standards. Thus far, the Association has declined to take affirmative action as to professional training. The special committee of the Association appointed to study the matter has recently collected from authoritative sources the requirements for instructors in one group of colleges accredited by the Association, namely the public junior colleges. The data for each of the forty-eight states collected from the state departments of education of the several states are presented herewith. They are published for the information of the Association membership.

Upon these data the following brief comments may be made.

1. In approximately one-half of the states there are specific scholastic or pro-

fessional requirements, or both, of all or of a large proportion of the junior college faculty.

2. In ten of the states there are requirements of professional training set by the state department of education.

3. The requirements of professional training in junior colleges connected with public high schools appears inevitable. It will not long be possible for such a college to operate upon a lower standard than does the high school itself.

4. The action of state departments of education in regard to public junior colleges relieves the North Central Association for the present from the necessity of any action in regard to those located in the states in question. If the movement so definitely in evidence here should become sufficiently general and be made effective, the question would be removed from consideration by the Association.

5. There would still remain, however, the status of the private junior colleges and of other institutions not included under state department regulations.

Qualifications of Instructors and Deans in Junior Colleges Set by State Departments of Education and Other Accrediting Agencies

STATE	SCHOLASTIC	PROFESSIONAL	OTHER	STANDARD SET BY	NO. REQUIREMENTS
Alabama	Bachelor's degree plus one year of graduate work.			Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States	
Arizona	Master's degree.	18 semester hours	Excellent experience	Board of Education	
Arkansas	North Central Association Standards. Bachelor's degree.		Special training or three years experience	State Department of Education	
California	For the Preliminary Certificate—Bachelor's degree plus one year of graduate work. For Class A Certificate—Bachelor's degree plus two years of graduate work or a Master's degree.	18 semester hours with bachelor's degree or 10 semester hours with master's degree		State Department of Education	
Colorado					X
Connecticut	Follow standards set by the National Association of Junior Colleges				
Delaware	No report				
Florida					X
Georgia	Bachelor's degree plus one year of graduate work.	18 semester hours		Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States	
Idaho	Master's degree—Bachelor's degree for commercial subjects	15 semester hours		State Department of Education	

## Qualifications of Instructors and Deans in Junior Colleges—Continued

STATE	SCHOLASTIC	PROFESSIONAL	OTHER	STANDARD SET BY	NO REQUIRE- MENTS
Illinois	Bachelor's degree plus one year of graduate work	12 semester hours		Illinois State Examination Board	
Indiana					X
Iowa	Master's degree or two years of graduate work as equivalent.			State Department of Education	
Kansas	Bachelor's degree plus one year of graduate work—10 hours in subject taught.	15 semester hours	High School Certificate — Bachelor's degree with 18 hrs. professional work.	State Department of Education State Certificate	
Kentucky	Bachelor's degree. 75% of faculty (except in manual arts) to have master's degree.	New instructors should have professional work			
Louisiana					X
Maine	Master's degree	15 semester hours			
Maryland	Bachelor's degree plus one year of graduate work.			American Council on Education	
Massachusetts					X
Michigan					X
Minnesota	Master's degree	15 semester hours		State Dept. of Education	
Mississippi	Bachelor's degree plus one year of graduate work.			Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States— State Dept. of Education	



## Qualifications of Instructors and Deans in Junior Colleges—Continued

STATE	SCHOLASTIC	PROFESSIONAL	OTHER	STANDARD SET BY	NO REQUIRE- MENTS
Missouri	Master's degree	15 semester hours in education		State Dept. of Education	X
Montana					X
Nebraska					X
Nevada					X
New Hampshire					X
New Jersey					X
New Mexico					X
New York					X
North Carolina	Master's degree for department head			State Dept. of Education North Carolina College Conference	
North Dakota					X
Ohio					X
Oklahoma	Bachelor's degree plus one year of graduate work	For life certificate 24 semester hours For 5 year certi- cate - 16 semester hours		State Certificate State Department of Education	
Oregon					X
Pennsylvania					X
Rhode Island					X
South Carolina					X

## Qualifications of Instructors and Deans in Junior Colleges—Continued

STATE	SCHOLASTIC	PROFESSIONAL	OTHER	STANDARD SET BY	NO REQUIRE- MENTS
South Dakota	Bachelor's degree minimum. 40% of faculty to have master's degree.			North Central Association Standards Univ. of South Dakota	
Tennessee	Bachelor's degree plus one year of graduate work.			Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States	
Texas	Bachelor's degree plus one year of graduate work.			State Dept. of Education	
Utah	Master's degree			State Dept. of Education	
Vermont					X
Virginia	Bachelor's degree plus one year of graduate work.			State Dept. of Education	
Washington	Master's degree			University of Washington Washington State College	
West Virginia	Now arranging to meet North Central Association Standards.				X
Wisconsin					X
Wyoming					X

# Informationalism Versus Institutionalism in Education\*

BY GLENN FRANK,  
PRESIDENT, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

There is always time out between halves. People always stand up at the end of the seventh inning. I suggest that all of you who did not stand up before stand up now for just a second and stretch.

Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen, this afternoon I debated with myself for a long while trying to decide whether to be diplomatic or honest in this discussion. I suspect that if in our Educational Conference we should always say what we really think about our educational procedures, our meetings might be less flattering to our professional vanity, but more valuable to our constituencies. I had just about decided to be truthful instead of tactful, when I picked up a magazine of alleged humor, in which I found two items that made me hesitate a bit.

The first item was this: Two colored men were talking through the bars of a cell.

"How long are you in jail fo', Mose?"

"Two weeks."

"What am the cha'ge?"

"Done shot ma wife."

"You mean you all killed yo' wife and only in jail fo' two weeks?"

"Dat's all; den I gits hung."

The second item was this: A young

man was applying for a job on a big league ball team.

"So you want to try out for our baseball team, eh?" said the manager. "What was your business before you took up baseball?"

"I was a chiropractor," said the applicant.

"Nothing doing," said the manager, "we don't want a guy around here that's always pulling bones."

Now, the man who is foolish enough to be indiscreetly honest about our school system in an educational conference may get hung, or he may, in the classic language of the academies, "pull a bone," but the experiment might be worth trying.

There is, of course, no reason on earth why you as a group of educational experts should take seriously any observations I may see fit to make on educational theory or practice. Because the President of a State University is not supposed to know anything about education. He is supposed to be a combination traveling salesman and circus barker, selling his University to the State, and a sort of non-political politician securing succulent appropriations from the Legislature. In the spare time he has left over from these two jobs, he is supposed to answer the daily mail, serve as a kind of human wailing wall against which parents and alumni can pour out their lamentations, preside

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\*An address delivered before the meeting of the North Central Association in Chicago, March 16, 1928.



over without participating in faculty meetings, iron out quarrels between department heads and deans, and in general play chambermaid extraordinary to the routine work of the university, leaving the matter of educational policy to those who really know something about it. And, to many, the inappropriateness of a University President's attempting to discuss educational policy becomes even more clear when the President in question is like myself not a professional educator, but a journalist on parole.

Happily I know my limitations when I find myself surrounded by experts. But you will, I am sure, tolerantly permit me to indulge in the indiscretion of my own ignorance by venturing a few lay guesses about the educational system in the United States.

I want to consider the conflicting principles of informalism and institutionalism as they effect the reality of the processes of liberal education. And I limit the discussion of these two principles to their operation in the field of liberal education, because, unless I am far afield in judgment, liberal education is at once the most important and the least effective part of the American educational system. We are making magnificent advances on all sectors of the educational front where technical and specialized procedures are rightly of paramount concern. Our schools are becoming better and better means for giving the tools of learning to students. Every year we are perfecting the processes by which reading, writing, arithmetic and other elementary tools of learning are taught. Every year we are giving abler guidance to graduate study and more richly adequate facilities to research in our universities. Our

professional schools are alive and alert and are becoming better and better instruments for giving effective training in the subject matters and techniques of the professions and the trades—law, medicine, engineering, commerce, agriculture and the like.

But, if I may hazard a judgment, every year American schools are becoming less and less effective instruments for providing that liberal education upon which even these more specialized adventures must ultimately depend for their continuing vitality. I have said that we are making constant advance on all sectors of the educational front where specialized procedures and technical objectives are rightly of paramount concern. But the news from the liberal educational sector reads differently. Not only is no advance reportable from that quarter, but the liberal sector, itself weak even in its negative advance, is being captured by a lush variety of educational marauders. The reality of the liberal educational process in American schools is, in my judgment, being strangled by the red tape of its own procedures and smothered under a mass of undigested subject matter.

Liberal education is the ugly duckling of the American school system. Everybody pays lip service to liberal education, but nobody will admit responsibility for the results we are getting. Uneasily aware of the nation-wide breakdown of the liberal educational process, each of us seeks to shift responsibility to other shoulders. The grade schools, blame the parents, the high schools blame the grade schools, the colleges blame the high schools, and the professional schools blame the colleges. At every point of transfer from one educational unit to another, there is an

orgy of criticism of the liberal educational results of the group that had the students last. Almost every educational conference when it touches the issue of liberal education, degenerates—if I may once more resort to classic phraseology—into a high carnival of passing the buck.

And this uneasy evasion of responsibility is, I think, an instinctive acknowledgment of the fact that the returns on our investment in liberal education are distressingly small. I have no desire to play the role of educational Cassandra, but necessity compels me to voice the conviction that the liberal education process in America is relatively bankrupt today, and unless we can make it solvent and creative again, it is, in my judgment, only a question of time until scientific research and technical progress will begin to suffer from this bankruptcy. Scientific research will find the imaginative richness of its hypotheses impoverished, and technological development will find the rapidity of its progress slowed down.

I realize that I may be suspected of romanticism in thus arguing the crucial importance of the liberal educational processes, because I am not, as things go in the academic trade union, a technical scholar. I have not subjected myself to the long and rigid discipline of any of the natural sciences. "You are one of these abstract humanists," you may say. And so I want to call to the witness stand one of America's distinguished scientists, Robert M. Milliken. Last year Mr. Milliken attended the British Association for the Advancement of Science. Sir Arthur Keith, probably the greatest of the living anthropologists of Great Britain, in his presidential address, brilliantly reviewed

the last fifty years of fossil study, which, he asserted had given indisputable confirmation to Darwin's evolutionary conception, which had been so vigorously debated in the British Association fifty years before.

On the following Sunday, the Bishop of Ripon, with a gesture of acknowledgment to the scientific discussions of the week, asserted that modern science is creating new forces so much faster than we are learning how to control them and put them to creative use that it might be wise for the scientists of the world to take a ten year holiday from their laboratories until humanity could catch up with and establish control of their output.

Mr. Milliken in the April issue of the Atlantic Monthly effectively exposes the fallacy of the ten year proposal made by the Bishop of Ripon. Humanity has always been terror-stricken in the presence of new knowledge, and I suppose this fear is the lingering ghost of those jungle-born fears of the unknown, which our primitive ancestors acquired in their struggle to survive. Adam, you will remember, was warned away from the tree of knowledge. The race has always been afraid it would not be able to dominate its own discoveries. And so the Bishop of Ripon was simply following in the apostolic succession of those who are afraid.

But after discussing the fallacy in the Bishop's proposal, Mr. Milliken said, in effect, for I quote from memory: "But there is a real question not so easily disposed of which the Bishop's sermon puts to the man of science. And it is this, 'Am I myself as a scientist a broadly enough educated man to distinguish between the truth of the past and the errors of the past, and not to pull

them both down together? Am I sufficiently familiar with what the past has learned and what it therefore actually has to teach, and am I enough of a statesman not to remove any brick from the structure of man's progress until I see how to replace it with a better one?"

"I am sorry," said Mr. Milliken, "to be obliged to admit that some of us will have to answer that question in the negative. Such justification as there may be for the public's distrust of science is due chiefly to the misrepresentation of science by uneducated scientists."

Of course, Mr. Milliken would not leave all of the blame on the shoulders of the scientists. So he says, "This problem, however, is not at all peculiar to science. In fact, the most wantonly destructive forces in modern life and the most sordidly commercial are not in general found in the field of science. It is in literature and art, more than science, which has been the prey of those influences from which the chief menace of our civilization comes."

Then he goes on to tell how the scientists have got their own cranks, their perpetual motion cranks, fairly well in hand. But, he says, "society has as yet developed no protection against these perpetual motion cranks in the field of literature and art." He means by perpetual motion cranks the devotees of anything that is new regardless of whether it is true or not.

For instance he says, "The race long ago learned that unbridled license in the individual is incompatible with social progress, that civilization, which is an orderly group life will perish and the race go back to the jungle unless some sense of social responsibility can be

kept universally alive. And yet today literature is infested here and there with unbridled license, with over-sexed, neurotic influences, the product of men who either are incompetent to think anything through to its consequences, or else who belong to that not inconsiderable group who produce without being in the least interested in social consequences, and are only interested in the matter of expressing themselves. Such men, in fact, are nothing but the perpetual motion cranks of literature and art. It is from this direction more than from the direction of science that the major menace of our civilization comes."

"The remedy," he says, "*is certainly not to give science a holiday. That is both impossible and foolish. It is rather so to reconstruct and extend our educational process as to make broader gauged and better scientists and humanists alike. There is no other remedy.*"

This is the argument with which I began. Unless we can contrive to effect a renaissance of reality in liberal education, the very greatness of our scientific success may mean social suicide, and in the end our specialisms themselves will go dead, because without a sound liberal educational basis we cannot go on year after year turning out of your universities scientists and specialists with ever narrower and narrower bases without arriving at a time when our scientists will be unable either to conceive or to comprehend those creative guesses, those fruitful hypotheses, those far-visioned speculations which have heretofore preceded and played such a great part in producing every great advance in the sciences.

Now, what do we mean by liberal education? There is, of course, no



generally agreed upon definition. Everybody tries to draft a definition, but nowhere in America is there a clear-cut corporate action by any institution in the light of an agreed upon definition.

After saying that, of course, I cannot attempt a definition. I shall merely limit my term for the purpose of this brief discussion to what seems to me the heart, the essence, of a liberal education. By a liberal education I do not mean a mere dabbling in dainties. By liberal education I do not mean the memorizing and the mastering of any particular subject matter, whether it be Latin or Greek or mathematics or history. Certainly I do not mean what a caustic critic of a certain educational proposal said the other day. He said, "Most of the talk about liberal education is merely a plea for poetry and plausibility."

All that I mean by liberal education in this discussion is an educational process, whether inside the schools formally or outside the schools informally, that results in the student's being able to understand and to make reasonably effective use of the modern world, working in harmony with, not at cross-purposes to, the creative forces of his time. And this means primarily, as I see it, the ability to think clearly, creatively and objectively outside one's specialty as well as inside one's specialty.

There is, of course, nothing new in this statement. From the very beginning of liberal colleges we have said that our objective was to enable students to think clearly, creatively, and objectively outside their specialties as well as inside. And we have tried all sorts of devices for achieving that objective.

First we said we could achieve this

by studying anything provided only it was hard enough and distasteful enough. So we began by concentrating on Latin and Greek and mathematics. We said that if we could only get a man to juggle Greek roots with enough accuracy, we could turn him loose on the world and in all his relations and responsibilities he would think clearly and accurately, he would weigh values just as he weighed them back in the Greek classroom. Well, that is a marvelous theory. There is only one little difficulty with it. It never worked. I think the man whose judgment I would trust least in a human situation is one of the most distinguished Greek scholars it has been my pleasure to know. Now, the transfer of training from Greek or Latin or mathematics was theoretically very attractive, but it just did not happen.

Finally and reluctantly we were driven to see that it did not happen. And then, about the time Dr. Eliot was getting under way at Harvard, we said, "It isn't working so well with Latin and Greek and mathematics, but if we want to achieve clarity and creativeness and objectivity in thinking, the way to do it is by studying the sciences. If we can only get students to think clearly and accurately and creatively and objectively for two or three years in a scientific laboratory, they will be scientific when they get out." And a vigorous propaganda was put back of the teacher of science, not for science's sake but for the sake of finding a new discipline that would give us this clarity and objectivity that we had been seeking in futile fashion through the humanities. The humanities, the old first families of the curriculum moved over and made room

for the rather crude and noisy newcomers, the natural sciences.

And then we sat still and waited to see this transfer take place. And once more it did not take place. Let me illustrate what I mean by this:

A while ago I sat until night had slipped over the threshold of morning listening to a distinguished scientist describe the progress of his experiments in which he was searching for the cause and cure of dread disease. And as I watched with fascinated intensity the operation of the mind of this distinguished scientist as it worked its way through the tangled elements of his problem, I thought if this is what the study of science produces, then we could well burn the libraries of our humanities and keep our students only in laboratories. As I watched his mind work, I recaptured something of the exhilaration I felt when I stood first before that matchless incarnation of Greek genius, the Venus de Milo. I watched his mind, the ruthlessness with which he discarded the irrelevant, its almost clairvoyant sensing of the significant, its delicate balance and judgement. I said to myself, "Here is the scientific mind at its best."

But a few weeks later, I chanced to hear this same distinguished scientist in another group discussing a local political situation. I didn't want to believe my ears. It was a pitiful performance. All that made his mind great when he was dealing with a scientific problem dropped from him like a disintegrated garment when he began discussing a social question. He seemed literally to revel in irrevelancies. He walked blindly past the obviously significant. He seemed thoroughly devoid of any careful sense of justice in weighing the factors that entered into the political situation in question.

He was a realistic scientist when discussing a scientific problem. He was a rank sentimentalist when discussing government.

And as I listened to this great scientist I remembered what Voltaire said about the ancient Arabian belief that when a half moon hung in the sky the other half was hid in Mohammed's sleeve, a belief that was at the time entertained by the lettered as well as by the unlettered Arab. "This Arab," said Voltaire, "who will be a good calculator, a learned chemist, an exact astronomer, will nevertheless believe that Mohammed put half the moon in his sleeve."

We smile at this ancient Arab, but I am not sure that we are ahead of him. We have become very expert in teaching the results of science, but we are still in the stone age in the matter of knowing how to awaken and assure the spirit of science in the whole of men's minds. And until we make further inroads on this problem, American life will continue to be, as it is today, a contest between educated demagogues and uneducated demagogues, and between the two there is not much to choose.

As we saw that hope for scientific thinking from the study of sciences go glimmering, then we said, "The trouble is that modern knowledge has increased so rapidly that coherence has disappeared from the curriculum. What we need to do is to effect a new synthesis of modern knowledge." And then began the period of ardent evangelism for orientation courses. We cast a hasty glance round the intellectual horizon, and taking a bit from this, and a bit from that, and a bit from the other, we put the garnerings together, stirred well, and administered in doses

at regular intervals while the regular professors were giving the regular work of the college as well. Before long we began to suspect that the orientation courses were not materially affecting the student's habits of thinking in fields outside his speciality.

Then we said, the principle is right, but we have the courses in the wrong place. We should have them at the end of the college years instead of at the beginning. So we took the orientation course, moved it over four years, rebaptized it, and called it a summary course. I think there is now a rather general disillusionment respecting orientation and summary courses. Some of us at least are coming to believe that if the student is to be orientated during his college years, that this orientation must be achieved, not through some device tacked on to his college course, but that it must come in and through the regular procedures of all four of his college years.

My own guess is that we shall achieve the central objective of liberal education only by some revolutionary move that will smash through the complexities of our techniques and methodologies and effect a vast simplification of the whole liberal educational problem.

The major dilemma of liberal education, as I see it, grows out of two main developments that have marked American education during the last fifty years: First, intensive specialization in the presentation of subject matter, and, second, extensive freedom in the selection of studies under the elective system. Now, both of these developments have to date been highly useful, and both were inevitable. The rising tide of new knowledge flowing into our universities faster than edu-

cators could possibly turn it out into well cut channels of an educational scheme or curriculum made both intensive specialization and extensive freedom of election inevitable. It was the easiest way of handling this inrush of new knowledge. And most of us are so lazy we will always take the easiest way if we are not shamed out of it.

But in these first fifty years of the era of specialization and freedom we have lost, or at least have had to struggle hard to keep from losing, coherence and perspective out of our liberal educational results. We have seen these two highly important principles of specialization and freedom resulting in two bad by-products. These bad by-products are: first suicidal specialization by some students, and, second, suicidal smattering by other students.

Suicidal specialization in the American university has given us the graduate who knows everything about some one thing, but so little about other things and about the social order in which he must practice his specialism that he is unable to keep his specialism in decent perspective.

Suicidal smattering has given us the graduate who has picked and chosen here and there and yonder under the license of the elective system until he knows a little about a great many things, but not enough about any one thing to bring himself and his knowledge to effective focus on anything.

It has been agreed, I think, that a man may be neither a good citizen nor a great specialist if he falls a victim either to suicidal specialization or to suicidal smattering.

And so I suggest that we are today challenged to lay the foundation for a



post-Eliot era in liberal education, if we are to avoid both the current perversion of specialization that makes us narrow-minded and the current perversion of freedom that makes us scatter-brained. We must strive to bring back into liberal education that breadth of knowledge and that sense of the relation of things that we have so largely lost out of the liberal college. We must devise methods of study and teaching that will work against the passive acceptance of information and ideas by students or teachers. Methods that will make for independence, initiative and originality; methods that will bring with the development of perspective, the critical spirit, and initiative, a genuine zest for thinking, a lively curiosity about human affairs that will remain as a ferment in our students throughout their lives, giving to them a living elasticity and effectiveness that will keep them eager for learning long after their college days are over.

This is the problem that we are attacking—tentatively and with a keen sense of the difficulties involved—in the small venture at Wisconsin known as the Experimental College. I want to take a few minutes to define that experiment in terms of these two principles to which I have referred.

As many of you know, the course of study in this Experimental College, is based on the principle of the study of situations rather than the study of subjects. That is to say, instead of studying the various sciences, economics, history, literature, psychology, sociology, and the like, as if they were separate and distinct things, and then later, probably after graduation, trying to bring the separate subjects to bear upon the task of understanding and working

intelligently in a complicated civilization, we are having the students of this Experimental College, with the counsel and cooperation of their teachers, put certain coherent episodes of civilization on the table, dissect these episodes, see what forces animated them, what motives moved them, what factors, racial, political, social, economic, religious, philosophic or scientific were at work in these episodes of civilization.

In the process of dissecting these episodes of civilization, the students, with the counsel and cooperation of their teachers with specialized knowledge, reach out into all the separate fields of subject matter usually taught in colleges for whatever light they may need to have thrown upon an episode in question in order to understand it.

In other words, instead of studying separate subjects more or less for their own sake in the hope that the knowledge and discipline gained in their study may be useful later in understanding the situations they will face, the students of this Experimental College frankly begin at the other end: That is, they begin in college trying to understand typical situations, searching for and at least measurably mastering subject matter in various fields if and when they need it in their adventure in understanding.

The freshman year, or a good part of it, has been devoted to a study of a pre-scientific civilization, a civilization that managed to function without the influence of modern science and modern invention. The episode that seemed best fitted for this study seemed to us the great period of Athenian civilization when so many of the ideas that have remained alive and creative to this day were first thought out and expressed with unequalled clarity and completeness. We

think that it may be possible, when the scheme is matured, to move on during the freshman year to a similar look at the Middle Ages.

The sophomore year, or a good part of it, will be devoted to a study of a civilization that has come under the influence of modern science. For a while we thought that we would devote a considerable part of this period to a study of the Industrial Revolution which came from the introduction of steam and machine power into production, because we believed that this study would not only lead the students to make heavy calls upon a wide range of subject matter but would lead them to face frankly most of the factors that dominate our contemporary American civilization. But a study of the rise of American civilization is what we finally decided on. It has often been remarked that, while our colleges and universities succeed in producing men who succeed in thinking clearly, objectively, and creatively in their specialisms, they are not producing with equal consistency men who think clearly, objectively, and creatively outside their specialities.

This is the reason why we are trying at Wisconsin the experiment of having the students of this Experimental College for a large part of their time engage in the actual practice of thinking clearly, objectively, and creatively about the complicated whole of successive episodes of civilization, episodes typical of situations they will have to unravel and understand when they get out of college.

If this practice in the art or science of understanding a social order bears the fruit we hope for, we may expect it to result in men who will not only better understand the life of their time and have a better technique for functioning in the

life of their time, but men who will actually become better specialists when they pass on into the more rigidly formalized disciplines of the sciences and the professions.

I remind you that this rather informal study of successive episodes in civilization is not simply a historical study of the technical sense. It concerns itself with the problems and perplexities that men faced in those episodes as we face problems and perplexities in modern life. It looks into the varied plans and programs that men brought to their problems and perplexities, some of them futile, some of them successful. What were the elements of strength and what were the elements of weakness in the social, economic, political and religious life of ancient Athens? Such questions have led the teachers and students of this college into adventurous research of many directions. The lines of these inquiries have led far outside the boundary of fifth century Athens back into civilization more ancient and down to our immediate present. Thus the study going on in this college is not a historical study, in the limited sense, but a study of the whole human experiment.

I think we can say this much with certainty in this experiment, it is not so much a matter of teachers teaching students as it is teachers and students studying together. The objective is a college in which teachers will teach less and less and students study more and more.

The teachers do not consider the authoritative handing down of knowledge to the students as their prime function, but look upon themselves rather as provokers and guides in the learning process. And one of the most successful teachers in that group has had his greatest success from the standpoint of sheer

intellectual results obtained in students in dealing with the field about which by the common standards of technical scholarship he knew very little more than the students did when the school year began.

In other words, it is a case of a group of intelligent men, each of whom has a fund of specialized knowledge, joining with a group of students in a common effort to understand the principles of living and of learning, as these principles may be seen in representative episodes of civilization. The kind of teacher we are aiming at is one who will not be a crutch upon which the student will lean, but a challenge the student will have to answer.

You will notice that in one sense, so far as subject matter or curriculum is concerned, the move is in the direction of simplicity. That is, there is no involved network of carefully organized subject matters. The curriculum is reduced to the simplest possible terms. "Here is a human situation. Let's try to understand it." This is about all there is to the problem of subject matter.

The method of dealing with the subject matter is likewise marked by simplicity. The method of teaching and studying is essentially informal. At the beginning of the year, each member of the teaching staff becomes identified with a group of ten or a dozen students whose work he will supervise. A number of times during the year these groups are shifted, so that the members of the teaching staff get new groups of students and the groups of students get new teachers. There are very few lectures in the formal sense. There is little, if any, class room work in the formal sense.

Respecting the respective episodes of civilization that are studied, a comprehensive collection of the literature of the

period and critical studies of the period is assembled. The students are plunged into a reading of these books. The students are all studying the same period and the same problem at the same time. The teachers are all studying the same period and the same problem at the same time. The students submit reports and memoranda upon their reading as a basis for individual conference and group discussions that go on regularly.

The teachers do not have just occasional office hours, but permit students to bring in their difficulties and talk them over and are available for counsel or guidance a good part of the entire working day. That, of course, is what is going to make it very hard to get much farther in this experiment. (Laughter). There are meetings of smaller or larger sections of the student body for the discussion of particular topics. There are talks by members of the college staff and by scholars outside the staff. We do not harbor any dogmatic feeling either for or against lectures. They are used if and when the clarification of a situation under discussion may call for them. But their use is very elastic.

Professor A is not scheduled for a lecture every Monday, Wednesday, and Friday at eleven, or Professor B every Tuesday and Thursday at ten. The lecture system is abolished, but the lecture is used when needed. All of which is to say that the process of learning in this experiment is kept informal, just as it seems to us the process of learning is invariably informal and intensive in any group of intelligent adults who come together for the purpose of unravelling or understanding an important situation or problem.

Now, all I wanted to do tonight was to emphasize my conviction that a renaiss-

sance of reality in liberal education can come only through some radical and revolutionary move in respect to some important part of the four college years. And that move must, in my judgment, result in the complete scrapping of a large part of the techniques and methodologies and formalisms that we are now employing, and move in the direction of a very great simplification of subject matter and greater and greater informality in the teaching process.

I must not conclude this discussion without confessing my realization that a move in the direction of simplification will be the hardest move to make in American education, because the whole system is organized against a move in the direction of simplification. It is not difficult to get any new thing, however radical, tacked on to the American educational system. But it is a different story to secure the adoption of principles like simplification and informality, even in some small section of the four college years, because these principles cannot be tacked on to the college system, but they will prove to be re-organizing principles which will compel extensive readjustment.

And whether we like to believe it or not, the fact is that we educators are very open-minded and liberal about things outside our profession, but we are about the most hide-bound, reactionary, conservative, stand-pat group on the planet when it comes to the acceptance of a principle that is revolutionary with respect to our procedures.

There are two great hurdles — and they may prove insuperable obstacles — in the way of any general reorganization of liberal education on a basis of greater simplicity and greater informality of procedure.

The first obstacle is that our whole school system is, in my judgment, over-institutionalized, by which I mean this: In the beginning the school was simply one of many instruments that the process of education used. Education, of course, was going on long before schools were invented, long before anybody thought of class room or curriculum. Men were getting a very good education in their struggle to survive in an unfriendly environment. That was education by experience. And then, if I may over-simplify the matter, one day a bright young primitive thought it would be a fine thing to invent a school, and so he built the first school. This school was to furnish education, not by experience, but by instruction. This primitive who invented the first school never thought of it as constituting education in itself. He thought of it merely as a needed adjunct to the real educational system of primitive life. He thought that through this school as an instrument, he could interpret the experience the race was getting by struggling to survive, by following the chase, and by drinking the heady wine of high spirited adventure in the jungle. And he thought probably that this school would give him a short cut to some of the experience the old men had had to get in a round about way.

That was an admirable conception, because if you can mix education by experience and education by instruction in the proper proportions you get a genuine education. But the thing happened to the school that always happens to a good idea when you organize it. Before long educators began acting as if they had a monopoly on education, until today, if you refer to education most people think only of something that happens



around school rooms. When a State legislature passes a resolution ordering an investigation of the educational system of a State, what do they investigate? They investigate, not the educational system, but the school system which is only a small part of the educational system of any State. It has been estimated that, from the time you enter the kindergarten until you finish the graduate school of a university, for every hour you spend in a school room you spend five outside, and in the five-sixths of your time that you are outside of the school all the innumerable influences of the American social order are pounding away upon you, influencing, affecting, molding your body, your brain, and your spirit.

It is going to be very difficult to informalize and to simplify the processes of liberal education, because the psychology of institutionalism has such a firm hold upon the educational mind. And until we begin to realize that the larger part of any man's education is something he gets entirely outside our schools, as long as we think that we educate students in colleges, we will continue to place an exaggerated value upon the formalisms that we are using.

The plain fact is, of course, that nobody ever "got educated" in an American college. All that any American college did to anybody was to give him a shove in the direction of his beginning to start to commence to get ready to learn to educate himself.

If we could only believe this actually instead of theoretically, and if we could break up this excessive institutionalization of the educational mind and realize what a small part of a man's education we furnish anyhow, we should feel

much freer to experiment with some of our procedures.

Another thing that would help us to conquer this psychology of institutionalism would be to go carefully into the results of a research like H. L. Thorndike's on the learning process at various ages. We have been obsessed with the idea that you can't teach an old dog new tricks. Thorndike has proved conclusively, I think, that you can teach an old dog new tricks, at least, if he isn't too old. The results of this research are ably assembled in Mr. Thorndike's "Adult Education." In the light of Mr. Thorndike's research, it appears that we might, to the advantage of all concerned, adjourn to the adult years and teach entirely outside of our colleges many of the things we are now trying to teach in the college years. But, you may say, the adult might not get these elements of education in after years. Well, if he isn't the sort that would get them when he really needs them afterwards, he isn't the kind to whom they will stick even if you will give them to him in college.

It is going to be very difficult for us to simplify subject matter and informalize the teaching process, because the excessive formalizations into which we have fallen are now very powerful vested interests. Even a hasty glance at the more common of these formalizations will indicate how difficult it is going to be to do anything about them. To my mind three of the most dangerous enemies of liberal education are note books, examinations, and the credit system. (Laughter). These three things—note books, examinations, and the credit system—come near to making liberal education impossible in the modern college.

The note book turns the average student into a reporter instead of a learner. Can you imagine two intelligent men sitting down to talk about something really important, and one pulling out a note book, poisoning a pencil, fixing a steely eye on his companion, and then writing desperately? You know what would happen. In the first place, the mind of the man taking the notes would be so fixed on the immediate sentence that he would miss the meaning of the next sentence. And also the steely look in his eye and the bobbing of the head between every sentence would paralyze the mind of the man who was trying to talk. Of course, teachers by long training have become somewhat expert in resisting that intellectual paralysis of note taking. But even in the class room it operates.

The trouble with the credit system, it seems to me, is that it is turning students into prize hunters instead of learners, just as the note book is turning students into reporters instead of learners. A liberal education fails utterly unless it stimulates a disinterested quest of understanding on the part of the student. And yet our elaborate system of grades and diplomas and grade points tends to make our students more interested in the attainment of marks than in the enrichment of their minds.

Education is something more than merely inducing students to study by holding before them the lure of a nice little bonbon in the form of a credit or a diploma. We are rapidly perfecting our system of credits. We are devising tests and techniques that give you an accurate cross-examination of the student's ability to remember what the teacher said, or what the textbook contained. But we have done very little

to remove that primary concern with marks, which is one of the most dangerous and insidious influences on the mind of the student.

Note books make reporters out of our students. The credit system makes prize hunters out of most of them. And the examination system is making expert—or inexpert—witnesses out of them. The examination problem, of course, is not new. You will remember what old Thomas Huxley said. "Examination, like fire, is a good servant but a bad master; and there seems to me to be some danger of its becoming our master. Students appear to become deteriorated by the constant effort to pass this or that examination, just as we hear of men's brains becoming affected by the daily necessity of catching a train. They work to pass, not to know; and outraged science takes her revenge. They do pass, and they don't know."

I don't want to seem cynical. But I venture the judgment we could afford to throw into the waste basket a great many of the formalizations and methodologies that we are now employing in education and lose very little. Some day—I hope it will be soon—we may stand before a full-length mirror and really see ourselves. When we do I suspect that we shall come to the conclusion that, during the last twenty years, of all the methodological output of our teachers' colleges and schools of education, while about thirty per cent of it has been admirable educational therapeutics, representing enormous educational advances, the other seventy per cent has been sheer educational chiropractic. (Laughter).

Heaven only knows how long it will be before we become realistic about ourselves. I heard the other day of the two

old ladies who come regularly to the British Museum. They would sit for hours before a certain mummy case, their eyes fixed on the mummy's head. Sooner or later a smile would come over their faces, and they would leave the Museum. Finally an attendant grew curious and asked them what they were doing.

"Oh," they said, "this mummy helps us make all the important decisions that direct our lives." They explained that, whenever they had a difficult problem to settle, they would decide what they thought was right, then they would come and sit before this mummy and say, "Shall we do this?" Sometimes they would have to wait for hours, but, if it was the right thing to do, sooner or later the mummy would nod its head. If it did not nod its head, they knew their decision was wrong.

The attendant told Sir Wallace

Budge, the curator of the Museum, of this curious incident. Upon investigation he discovered that the bone at the nape of the mummy's neck rested on a support, so that the head swung clear of the top of the case. Then he found that there was a loose board back of the case, so that whenever an attendant happened to step on the loose board, the impact would jar the case just enough to make the mummy nod its head.

Now we laugh at these old ladies. But I doubt that we educators have much right to laugh at them. I suspect we would be surprised if we realized how many of the major decisions in the American school system are made at the nod of the mummies of educational tradition. And there is always — around our educational institutions — enough loose things to step on so that we can get the nod. (Laughter and applause).

# The Training of Teachers\*

BY PRESIDENT C. C. LITTLE,  
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

INTRODUCTION BY PRESIDENT BOYD:

It was announced we would let you go to a show tonight if you had money enough to buy a ticket. The next speaker wanted to know how long he should speak. I did not like to limit him, so I told him thirty or forty minutes. If he will take the extreme limit, you will still have time to go to the show.

It is a very great pleasure that we have in bringing new accessions into our territory here. We don't always look to the Jerusalem of America, which I suppose is New England, to get our accessions. New England does not always take what seems to us, sometimes, the fruit of the Nazareth of the West, at any rate, willingly, but we always find there does come from New England something that is very, very helpful to us here in the West.

Dr. Little was tempted to move from the University of Maine out to the University of Michigan. I don't know why they wanted anybody at the University of Michigan. With an institution as perfect as that one is, that has reached such an acme of achievement and ability as the University of Michigan, I can't see what in the world there is for the President to do except draw his salary. I hope he is able to do that there. But this is the first opportunity we have had to welcome him into this organization. I take very great pleasure, therefore, in introducing

to you Dr. C. C. Little, President of the University of Michigan, who will speak on anything he may choose to speak on. (Applause)

DR. C. C. LITTLE: Your President has very kindly asked me to take the limit. I won't agree to take the limit of time, but I will agree to make what I have to say close to the limit of your endurance and we will compromise on that basis.

I don't know why you did not trust me enough to have this meeting at the Bal Tabarin. I consider that a slur on my puritanical character, for I am sure it would be a perfectly safe place to have taken me to tonight, instead of which you have chosen for that spot the very genial individual and good friend of mine, Glenn Frank. I hope your sins will be visited upon your head, instead of which you however will probably hear a very brilliant and stimulating address if you go to listen to him. He has all that the rest of us college presidents wish we had, including the ability to say the right thing at the right time, instead of at your home about one-half hour afterwards.

Your President spoke of the fact the colleges object because they receive so many poorly prepared students, and they certainly do. But, after all, they do make up for it in some measure, because they turn out, just as poorly prepared for life afterwards, almost as many as they receive. So they aren't altogether to be looked down upon. They do contribute

\*An address delivered on the occasion of the annual dinner in Chicago, March 15, 1928.



their share to the inefficiency of civilization.

We don't want you to feel, those of you who come from the secondary schools, that you have any lien or absolute mortgage on the ability to hand over to the next unit above you, material which is in worse shape than when you got it. I assure you we do a very good job of that at the colleges and universities. I only wish we might send them back to you, and so keep up an endless chain of comradeship and friendship. (Laughter).

I am not going to try to do what my friend and former adviser, President Lowell, did, namely to dive courageously from the top of the tent into three feet of water, as he did at the N. E. A. meeting at Boston. I am not going to try to chastise the secondary schools, because I am sure you all have civic governments or state governments or parents who do just that thing very nicely. In fact, I am rather inclined to feel, considering the magnitude of your task in the secondary schools, that you have gone a great deal further along the road in facing the situation than have we at the colleges and universities. But the problems of which I wish to speak briefly are those which affect both of us. They involve the training of teachers, and the training of teachers has, I think, a very delightful Hagenbeckian sound. It suggests the intrepid trainer with the whip in hand, and the crouching lion in the corner of the cage, and all the excitement that goes with a situation of that type.

When a college president speaks of the training of teachers he does not approach it in that hardy spirit and feel as though he was about to become master of the situation. Rather, I think, he approaches it in somewhat the same feeling a gentle-

man would have if he were drawing near the edge of Niagara Falls in a bucket. It isn't an easy topic to treat to the satisfaction of all, or to the satisfaction of any considerable group, because teachers and education, and fitness for life, and success and failure are terms which we can use very easily, but which none of us can possibly define.

So that in considering the training of teachers, if we try, very roughly, to emphasize matters of apparent importance, I hope you will be charitable of the attempt.

There are three major fields of activities in which the training of teachers manifests itself: First, in the knowledge of subject matter; second, in the methods of instruction; third, in the knowledge of the nature of the pupil.

We all know that subject matter has been done up by administrative officers and by teachers themselves in packages of all sorts of shapes and sizes, some sugar-coated, and some in their original and native acidity. These have been fed to the students at times when they were prepared for it, and at times when they were not. The methods have varied greatly. It has been rammed down their throats, and it has been dragged along before them like a string before a kitten, in the hope they they would jump at it.

We have tested out the "subject-matter" phase and the "methodology" phase of teacher training until deans and faculties themselves are not able longer to interpret their own rules. That is a very satisfactory condition in which to leave them, because when they are in that condition, they can do no one else any harm, and they are inclined to build up those lasting enmities which breed academic spleen. Altogether it is a very happy solution, I think. For they are attempting

to fire on one another with pop-guns, and, like most small boys with pop-guns, the noise is disconcerting, but the amount of mortality is not great.

That kind of work detailed over "subject matter" and over "methods" seems to me to be outside of the major issues of present day education, and to have missed the fundamental truth that unless we proceed to found our methods in education, and use our subject matter in education in an inspired way, which takes into account common factors of mutual interest to school people and to college people, and to boys and girls, and parents and taxpayers, and various other people alike, we shall not have built a system of education which will last.

There is involved in our various positions a duty to sound out and to study the elements which go into the situation, the cause and effect relationship of many of the things that are happening. It is *not* our duty merely to polish off what is given us, merely to assert and rearrange subject matter, and devise new methods. It is our duty to study *why* we are doing certain things, and whether the results which we are attempting to attain are being realized and whether, if so, they are permanent or merely temporary.

I know of one great eastern institution, where I believe the students are learning during their college course more facts than are those at any other university in the country today, but I have an ingrained conviction that they are also vowing solemnly to forget them just as quick as the Lord will let them, after they get their degree. In other words, the methodology and the subject matter is being splendidly handled. The students are thickly plastered with it. They cannot get it out of their eyes, their ears, their noses

or mouths, while they are in residence. But they will make a dive for the "swimming hole" as soon as they are let out of the institution. I think many of them will decide never to study again, if they can help it. Of course, some of them will go on studying. They are born scholars. I think, however, that few scholars are being made by this method.

It is a good deal the way it was at the chapel at Yale, I understand, when a very distinguished speaker came and asked President Hadley how long he should speak. President Hadley said, "Well, that is entirely up to you, but we have found at Yale that no conversions are made after the first fifteen minutes."

Now it is exactly the same way with the acquisition of scholarship. You cannot obtain converts to the cause of scholarship merely by plastering them thickly with facts and information. They will use it like so much money, and when it is exhausted, they will not of themselves be able to acquire more.

Knowledge of subject matter varies greatly in different teachers. Methodology is also vary variable. But, as I have said, they neither are as important today, in my opinion, as an approach to a more fundamental and widespread knowledge of the pupil. It is the pupil which forms the link between the present and the future. Just as Mark Twain once unearthed the startling fact that everybody had once been a baby, so it is a disturbing fact that everybody in this room was once upon a time a pupil. You did not have to pass the admission requirements or the course requirements which you are today enforcing, or maybe some of you would not be here tonight. But all of you at sometime or other were pupils. Therefore you have a common ground, a common language, primitive thought, it may

be, which you can speak in mutual understanding with the pupils of today. For it is worth while remembering that a seventeen-year old boy or a fifteen-year old boy, or a twenty year old boy in 1928 is not fundamentally or inherently different from the same aged individuals in 1910, in 1900 or in 1890. All that they have learned to do differently is to abuse the highly complex civilization of their elders more intelligently than did the former generations. They have not, however, changed in nature, and they have devised no forms of misbehavior, the general standard of which has not been set by our ancestors. In every case they have simply used, with the enthusiasm and the courage of youth, the general weakness which we have devised for them and left at their door-steps. So they are not any more erudite or any more difficult, or really very different from what they used to be. This is a factor worth bearing in mind.

It is an interesting thing to notice, if one obtains, as I did a while ago, the catalogs of six of the greatest schools of education in our country and studies the courses which they offer—these centers of teacher training, and of the training of superintendents and of administrative officers who, in turn, will direct the destinies of a vast numbers of teachers—that approximately 80 per cent of their courses deal with subject matter or methodology and about 20 per cent with analysis of pupils and a knowledge of the human material with which the educational system is being built.

It seems to me that emphasis is almost diametrically opposite to what it should be. It would be far better and far sounder and far more progressive and certain of producing achievement, if we spent about four-fifths of our time in

making the teachers learn something about the human material with which they were working. I do not feel that the question today is half so much "are there too many boys, or too many students going to college?" as it is "Are there enough colleges going to students?" I think that that is a very different question, for I find it of very little real interest to many of the older and more learned members of university faculties (and I imagine this is true in the Northwest or in the South, as well as in the North Central district). I am quite sure that you will find very few of your elder faculty members who consider it anything more than a disgrace, if they have to confine their time and attention, in any large measure, to the problems of the "unformed" student mind. It has come by them to be considered a loss of caste if they deal with the freshmen and sophomores, and the criterion of their value in the scholastic world consist in being able to confine their sole energy to research work and advanced instruction with seminar courses or graduate courses or something of that kind.

That space between the two types of effort within the faculty of the ordinary college of liberal arts is a far greater gap than exists, according to my way of thinking, between the colleges and the secondary schools, or between the secondary schools and the elementary schools, because it may be a gap caused by intellectual snobbishness, that is, a gap which has built a twin altar on which subject matter and methodology are large, eternally burning candles.

I think it is worth while to remember that something more than mere grades in courses must exist in both our schools and colleges if we are to make the most of our opportunities, in fact if we are to

be faithful to society. We must remember that admission to opportunity rests or should rest upon character. If there is any doubt about that, and your faculty or your school board or your friends become a little bit troublesome and say, "Academic achievement is all that is required to admit one to any opportunity that lies before," may I call attention to the fact that probably the greatest of all administrators of admission requirements—St. Peter, finds it desirable to know something of the character of the applicants.

It has been found useful in measuring academic rewards to consider something more than grades of material achievement. There is nothing spiritual about the grades in most of our courses today, unless it be the engendering of friendship by which dishonesty is carried on, and then masked by one's friend. Possibly that is the only value of the growth of friendship on that basis. But there is little of the juice of human kindness in the average grade.

Consider that remarkable example of the geometry examination. The same paper, including no original propositions whatever, was given to five examiners who, as I remember it, graded it from 50 per cent to 80 per cent—the same examination paper by the same student. There is very little, if any, value in that type of criterion as an end to be worshipped by those of us who like to think we understand youth. I am quite sure that until we have a different conception of education from what is involved in that procedure, we shall not go very far into the hearts and minds and souls of the pupils with whom we have to deal.

I also recommend to you the memory of your greatest teachers. If you can tell me what grades they gave you in

your subjects, I shall be very much surprised, unless perhaps they disciplined you wisely and you remembered that incident. You *will* be able, however, to tell me definitely what qualities in you they found in an incipient, subordinate condition, and brought to the surface, magnified and released as flaming, driving forces in your lives.

We cannot afford to become snobbish, and I am very much afraid that we are well along that road. We like, subconsciously, to deal with definiteness. It gives us a feeling of surety. But it is not a wise or sane procedure. I don't know why this Association meets in Chicago, unless it is hoping that perhaps Chicago will some day get a bad attack of education in the head, and that the infection will become permanent and some good be done. But I think it is very wise to meet in a large city where you are constantly reminded of the enormous machine which man has started, and which no man or group of men today can possibly finish, or the activity of which cannot be held up for any great length of time.

Consider the fact that we are not deciding *whether* water shall run or *where* it shall run, but rather whether we can divert some of the great stream of humanity and make it do a particularly fine type of work. Remember, also, that higher education at public expense, is *not* a right and is not to go to every boy and girl, just because they happen to be born. Remember that it is a privilege and an obligation combined.

It has been surprising to me to find out how many boys and girls in state universities, hired by the state, at public expense, to complete their education, have failed entirely to get the point that while they were in the state university, just as



while they are in the public schools, they are paid servants of the community which is supporting them. Unless we give them definitely that idea, and unless those of us who are teaching and administering those institutions get that idea, we shall not go very far. If boys and girls feel that they have a right to attend school or college under the conditions which they choose to lay down; to give to it the degree of achievement which they choose to give to it and *get* from it the rewards which they feel in some way are their inherent rights; we are *not* being democratic; we are not being honest; we are merely being blindly unaware of the fact that men and women, boys and girls, are individually different, and that those individual differences are given them for a purpose, not to ignore, but to use, up to the limit of their ability and intelligence.

Where in our educational system today do you find the major emphasis placed on the wise detection and utilization of individual differences in pupils? To be sure, there are honor courses; there are efforts being made here, there, or elsewhere, to do a good job with a superior group of students. But until we have determined definitely, in our own minds, the fact that our chief duty is to unearth the individual differences of our pupils, and to use them up to the limit of their ability, we shall not convince the boys and girls that we are honestly interested in their welfare. Until you can assure them of that interest on your part, you will not have their loyalty, and you will not have them as true followers. They will stay with you as long as they can use you, as long as you have any "juice" left. Then when you are dried up and have no more value to them, you will be scrapped in exactly the same way

as a used copy of the daily paper is tossed down on the seat beside them. They are very canny, and they know the difference between teachers or administrators who are hypocritical and pretending to give them something of great value, and those who admit that they are humbly trying to find as much of the truth in any situation as may be revealed to them by patient, hard work.

After all, none of us here in this room knows a small fraction of the potentialities of our jobs, or how best to do them. We have, if we have any jobs worth holding at all, such an immense amount of work before us that we should be very, very humble, and, at the same time, very grimly determined about them. We should not attempt to lay down the law to these students as though we had solved the problems of the universe. *They* know we have not. Unfortunately, the grown-ups gave away that fact by staging a most ungentlemanly World War, and the boys and girls have not forgotten that fact. When, therefore, we climb up on a pedestal and proceed to throw out our chests and pose as someone who has found the whole truth, they just laugh and go away, because they know that we have *climbed up* on the pedestal, and it is *our* pedestal. Some day when we get tired and hungry, we will crawl off it again and become once more human beings just as they are.

Why is it necessary to talk about matters that deal apparently with qualities that cannot be found in textbooks? It seems to me that it is necessary because today we are facing practically a reformation, both in education and in religion. Education and religion, as I see them, are twin sisters, so much alike that the people who know them best can hardly tell them apart. To be sure, they sometimes dress

up in different clothes. If you can see them both together, you can tell them apart, but in their make-up they have so many elements in common, that I believe the greatest advance in both of them, and an advantage which is sorely needed today, will come if we reduce them to certain very homely facts and very homely truths, of which we are in very grave danger of losing sight.

Just exactly as our boys and girls are coming to college today skeptical and doubtful in matters of education, they are coming to the colleges today skeptical and doubtful of much of the organized efforts of Christianity. I do not feel that they should be condemned or blamed for their skepticism in either case. All of us, in fact, in this room are Americans. If we had condemned skepticism and a lack of worship of things as they are, if we had condemned people who did not conform to powers that were in existence when they were born, we should never have been an independent nation. Independence is not a crime; in fact, it is one of the most priceless heritages of the American people. They were, however, never free from certain fundamental conceptions. Those involved subordination of the individual for the good of the greater social unit. They involved imprisonment, suffering, battle, death, poverty, for individuals by the hundreds and by the thousands in order that the greater unit, the nation, might live.

That is a truth. It has been a heritage of America. Yet, at the present time we are doing everything we can, subconsciously, I am sure in many cases, but definitely, nevertheless, to dodge that issue, and to say to our boys and girls, "You are right if you think as I do, and you are wrong if you don't." We are being illogical and, I regret to say, in my

belief we are being un-American, when we do that.

Honest doubt, fearless confession of ignorance, a desire to face new things, are all of them bred in our hearts. They will grow if we will allow them to be exercised once more, instead of to shrivel up from disuse.

I believe that in the recognition that such statements as that we have found *all* the right methods and *all* the right subjects and *all* the right approach to education are too positive, and in a similar criticism of too highly organized religion, many of the boys and girls have demanded a right, which is theirs, to come to truth under our sympathetic guidance, as they are best fitted to come to it. That may be a great strength to many of us. Many of us have been brought up in denominational churches. Many of us go there on Sundays, and so do some of these boys and girls, but thousands, and tens of thousands of them do not. They may sign up, when they come to college, that they belong to the Episcopal church, Methodist church, Baptist church, or some other denomination. But check up their attendance record at the church, and you will find that it is relatively small, unless the institution which they attend is itself sectarian. There is a reason for that, and I think the reason for it is that they doubt whether they can get what they are looking for under those auspices.

I think that if all of you in this room will be honest with yourselves for a moment, you will agree that all of us sometimes have been to church, and have failed to get any appreciable amount of spiritual inspiration from the particular service of the day. Perhaps I am the only person who had that experience. But there are different Sundays, and I am

different on different Sundays, and I say it to my own shame. Is it surprising therefore, that, when the world has turned topsy-turvy within a few years, there should be a period longer than a single Sunday in which young people have their doubts, and during which they fail to get spiritual inspiration either from those of us who are their educators or those of us who are their organized religious guides?

I think we need to take hold of this situation all over again on its basic principles; to say over to ourselves every morning and every night, "These are *our* boys and girls. These are our future Americans. When we are all through, *they* will go on. *Their* generation is more important to the world in terms of potentiality than is *ours*. Ours must try to help them. If it insists upon going off by itself, and setting standards to which they only agree in a half-hearted way, we have shirked our duties. We have failed to be as human as we should have been."

Education, then, today must throw its roots down into the hearts of the people. It must deal with human beings. It must love them well enough to be aware of their weaknesses and to love those weaknesses, and to try to work with the boys and girls to overcome them. We cannot preach to them, we cannot place ourselves on a different land and expect them to come to us, because they do not believe that our land is very much better than is their own. We must take it in that way. We must do this, also, if the support of our public educational system is to continue, because when these boys and girls become the dominant figures in their communities, they will give to the education of their boys and girls only what they believe they derived from

their own education. Unless you can reach inside of them and throw the roots of your education down there, you will not be able to enlist permanent support for many of the institutions which we today think are absolutely established upon rocks. They are not so established; they are in fact very wobbly. Taxation, economy programs are shaking the foundations of many of our educational institutions today. Let me tell you that it is likely to be more than a passing shock or tremor. It is likely to be a complete overturning of many of those institutions if we do not understand the nature of our country at the present time, and the nature of our boys and girls.

Throw the roots down, and then throw the branches of idealism so far ahead of where we can possibly reach, that we and they together are going to be workers towards that idealism. Don't claim that you found the answer, because you see they know that you haven't. They know us better than we know them. Don't claim we have found the answer, but tell them what is true. Say to them, "We are working, and you are working. We are learning as well as teaching. Won't you help to teach us as well as to learn?"

It should be a full business partnership between education and youth today, and between religion and education and youth, if we are to go ahead. As I see it, the potentials for evil and for uncertainty and possibly for disaster in the future are great, unless we get right down to fundamental values, unless we look at this as a great adventure and a place for crusades once more, not in the spirit of conscious righteousness, but in the spirit of the pilgrim, in the spirit of the worker and of the person who is willing to give up all



outward recognition to someone else, and to try to live in the hearts and souls of youths, in order that they in turn may maintain the institutions of America for their children and for the generations which are to follow. (Applause.)

# The Professional Training of Secondary School Teachers

## Part I. Some Committee Observations, Tentative Conclusions and Recommendations

(A Committee Report)

By WILL FRENCH, CHAIRMAN, LINCOLN, NEBRASKA

For purposes of publication the summaries and conclusions of the original report are printed first, followed by the studies upon which they are based.

First let us make some *observations*. By an observation we mean to state a fact or condition about professional training which has attracted the attention of the committee. We are not sure how significant it will turn out to be, but at the present time it seems worthy of note. We record it here for the double purpose of keeping it in the attention of the committee for further observation and also to attract your attention to it to a greater degree than otherwise might be the case.

First observation. The literature of the field shows that twenty years ago committees were criticizing the same practices in professional training as this committee is (Dr. Judd and N. E. A. committee of seventeen—1907). Whether the need is as great today as then someone with more perspective will have to say.

Second observation. The present formal, logical organization of teaching materials is probably necessary in introductory courses in education but in advanced work this might give way to a functional organization of these materials built around the student's experiences in observing and assisting in teaching.

Third observation. It was noted that in some schools students are permitted an

unlimited number of hours in education toward the under-graduate degree. The present knowledge of this committee does not warrant us in setting an upper limit for the hours in education which may be offered for this degree. This committee, if continued another year, would enjoy seeing the results of a case study of the elections of a thousand graduates from schools with no limit to the hours of education as compared to schools with various limits. After a student has secured 50 under-graduate hours in education the committee would like to know how much new learning takes place during the process of getting the other 20 hours permitted by some schools. Perhaps we should limit the students elections in education. Perhaps we should limit the sub-divisions of fields of education by instructors, each sub-division meaning a new course in education. Perhaps as suggested on this floor in other years we need less duplications of topics in different courses. Every school of education has its "claim jumper" and its advocate of "squatter sovereignty." This committee suggests that the dean of the school will have to run some lines between courses and require each instructor to do his grazing inside of his own fences.

Fourth observation. In the old days

colleges contented themselves with thoroughly teaching the subject-matter which the students later as teachers taught to their pupils. Now teachers colleges take a second step and attempt to *tell* students how to teach subject-matter (methods courses). But only when they all have taken the third step and provide *adequate* opportunity for participating in the teaching of subject-matter will they have instituted a scientific procedure comparable to that of the best organized schools preparing candidates for other professions. Observation of teaching and participating in appropriate phases of the process of teaching ought to form a large part of the work of teacher training, at least upon the advance levels. In the opinion of this committee, other professions using a comparable degree of technique have better plans for giving students opportunity to learn these techniques through practice under normal conditions than has the teaching profession if judged by the procedures used in most schools where student teachers work.

Fifth observation. The number of doctors which a medical school can graduate annually is largely determined by its clinic and hospital internship facilities. A hospital can take for training only a specified number of nurses in proportion to its opportunities for their training. A teacher training institution should be permitted to certificate annually only a given number of teachers based largely upon its facilities for furnishing each potential teacher an opportunity for observation of good teaching and an opportunity of participating in appropriate phases of the teaching process.

Sixth observation. We must develop within the profession means of assuring

ourselves that only those graduates of colleges who possess more than the least legal qualifications for teaching are actually started as entering teachers in the profession. What appears to be the simplest way out of this difficulty lies in relying upon teacher training institutions to recommend to school systems through their placement bureaus only those candidates who in their carefully formed judgment are outstanding individuals possessing the character qualities, physical endowment, social leadership, and intellectual ability so obviously necessary to attain any high degree of success in the teaching profession.

It is understood that teacher training institutions are required to certificate all candidates who successfully complete the work prescribed by the law in any state. But they are not required by law to set themselves such low standards of achievement that it is possible for every student entering teacher training institutions to obtain a certificate. Their immediate obligation doubtless is to develop in their students the qualities and abilities necessary for success in their chosen profession, but while attempting this in good faith they must not forget that their primary obligation is to the boys and girls in the American schools and they should cut off from certification those least likely to succeed as teachers. If this is not possible in all states, it certainly is possible for teacher training placement bureaus to establish lists of recommended candidates omitting from this list all those students who, although meeting the legal qualifications for certification, are not counted as outstanding, promising candidates by the institution from which they are graduating. Schools employing teachers would certainly first seek candidates from recom-

mended lists and those considered least qualified by their institution would, as a result, be the last to secure positions. As Dr. Payson Smith, commissioner of education of the state of Massachusetts, in a recent address stated, "in the end the question of securing a highly trained, capable group of entering teachers in the profession is a matter of the integrity of teacher training institutions." If they do not develop and maintain a plan for entering into the profession candidates of high abilities, no amount of training in service will ever attain satisfactory results.

Such a restriction on the number of entering candidates by teacher training institutions could evidently be put into force without any economic disturbance within the profession. In fact, unless some such restriction is put into force we are face to face with a possible lowering of salaries which *will* produce such a disturbance. Bulletin number thirty, 1927, of the Bureau of Education, page two, shows that in 1894 there was one teacher in training for every 5.6 positions. In 1900 there was one teacher in training for every 5.5 positions. But in 1926 there were 494,291 teachers in training for 960,000 positions, or one prospective teacher for every two positions. Moreover, the Bureau of Education is also responsible for the statement that the present number of candidates graduating from teacher training institutions each year would entirely replace all those now engaged in teaching every seventh year. These figures apply to both elementary and secondary school candidates, but the evidence is that there is in most states a surplus in both fields. The rate of withdrawal from the profession is far below this and these conditions simply mean that each year we have

an ever increasing surplus of teachers. The size of this surplus makes it increasingly difficult to maintain such standards of salary schedule as attract to the profession desirable candidates. We must rely upon the profession to save itself by establishing within the profession high standards of requirement and the teacher training institutions as the source from which incoming teachers are received, must be relied upon to play a large part in this process.

Seventh observation. Obviously commonly accepted objective standards for measuring success in teaching are needed. Prognostic tests of teaching ability or abilities would simplify the task of the college of education in providing suitable professional training for their students. But the process of training cannot be suspended awaiting the development of these tests. In the interim this committee suggests a rigid application of those time honored tests of (1) intelligence as indicated by scholarship both in liberal arts college and in teachers college courses; (2) health and physical fitness; (3) unquestioned character; and (4) personality (if it is not implied in the first three). At least those candidates recommended by an institution to the profession ought to excel in these four traits.

Eighth observation. There is some evidence to show that men now entering the profession do not rank as high in some desirable qualities as do entering women. Do capable young men think that they see a better future in the other professions and in business than in teaching? In America can we ever expect to find many men in the class rooms? As restrictions on higher education for women in Europe are gradually removed and as the economic ability of the Euro-



pean family permits women to take advantage of this higher education will not they also find that gradually the school mistress replaces the school master as here in America? Is a good man a better teacher than a good woman? Perhaps what we need is not so many more men entering the profession each year, but rather a few more superior men entering each year.

Ninth observation. Obviously, the practice of "blanket" certification is a bad one. Yet it is a practice countenanced by the most representative of our accrediting agencies even though five of the states\*, Connecticut, Indiana, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, issue certificates good for teaching in the high schools only those subjects definitely specified in the certificate, and one state, Indiana, specifically outlines the amount and nature of the work required for certification in any field. If there is any validity in the statement that organizations within the profession ought to set higher standards than those set by law, it is about time for accrediting agencies to take steps to gradually abolish "blanket" certification at whatever rate it can be done without undue hardship upon member schools.

Four years of college training, even with a specified amount of work in education, is at present less of a measure of adequate qualification for teaching than it ever was before. In times past, college graduation may have been a fairly good measure of one's qualifications for teaching. At that time the emphasis in secondary schools was strongly upon subject-matter and the kind of college training received by those graduated in

those days tended to give graduates the required command of subject-matter. Moreover, they represented a highly selected group from a selected group of secondary school students and consequently represented a high degree of intelligence. In the third place, they were instructing a selected group of high average intelligence. In the fourth place, there was little of science in education known and one well-educated person could teach about as well as another.

None of these conditions maintains today. In fact the direct opposite tends to prevail. At the present time there are many other important emphases in secondary education and many important outcomes desired other than command of subject-matter. The college graduates today do not represent a very highly selected group of people. In fact, as you know, it has even been suggested that the A. B. degree be conferred upon each American child at birth. Secondary school pupils today do not represent a highly selected group of high average intelligence but tend to be more and more unselected and more diverse in their abilities and interests, thus requiring greater teaching skill to achieve anything like equal results. In the fourth place, we have developed and are developing professional methods and techniques which are not possessed as a matter of course by all college graduates.

We are rapidly reaching, therefore, a place where such general statements of qualifications as four years of college training, including 11 or 15 hours of work in education, must be supplemented by more specific requirements to insure that the entering teacher of today will be even as well qualified as the entering teacher of fifty years ago.

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\*Dr. F. L. Wright, *The Certification of Teachers in the Secondary Schools of the United States*.

*Tentative conclusions.* By tentative conclusion this committee means to call attention to an opinion which at present the committee holds. We do not have, in all cases, enough real proof to justify us in using the conclusion as a basis for action, but we consider it worthwhile to record it as a conclusion which we hold at the end of this first year's work. We reserve the right to modify these tentative conclusions as a result of further work. If, as a result of further work, we decide that the tentative conclusion is well-grounded, we should then be willing to make it the basis of recommendation. So far we do not feel sufficiently sure of ourselves to base any recommendations on it.

First tentative conclusion. This committee feels that no narrow boundaries should be set up limiting the activity of this or any committee working in the field of professional training. If one were to read the resolution which resulted in the appointment of this committee literally and bind this committee to a study of the specific things set out in that motion, its hands would be tied to begin with. The minutes, however, show that the intention was to create a committee with more power and freedom of action than the previous committee had.

The purpose of the study of professional training, we take it, is to improve teaching in secondary schools and help raise it to higher levels. If such is the case and we are held responsible for bringing in tentative solutions of the problems we must be left free to act in a wide field of related problems. For instance, the motion creating this committee mentions graduate and under-graduate courses in

education. This committee can make no recommendation this year with reference to what should constitute graduate and under-graduate courses. There are so many other problems of moment underlying this one that in the opinion of this committee it will not be possible to answer that question for some time. You ask us how many hours of psychology, how many hours of history of education, how many hours of practice teaching, and our answer is that underlying these problems is the question of whether subject matter in teacher college training courses shall be organized for presentation upon a logical basis or a psychological basis. As one member of the committee has stated, "Teachers are admonished to make teaching take its cue from the learning process. Ideals are projected along lines of self-purposing and self-mastery. Yet practice is confused with the formalisms of regimentations. It is exceedingly difficult to start with "activity instruction" and to minister to the needs of the individual learner. The conventional method of registering information and merchandizing subject matter presupposed a training technique in accord with the logical organization of instructional materials. It is proposed that attention be directed to the preparation of teachers in terms of learning situations rather than teaching situations as such. To become a stimulator and guide in the learning process suggests a departure in the professional preparation of teachers. It may require a radical reconstruction of courses and method."

If we have a broad concept of the field of action for this committee, we shall find ourselves working not only upon the problems which may be con-

sidered to be directly related to the field of professional training, but we shall find ourselves interested in some related problems having to do with the candidate who is to receive the training and having to do with the position into which the candidate is to go.

Second tentative conclusion. This committee would like to raise the question of the adequacy of this form of committee organization for the study of a problem of the magnitude of professional training. In brief, we are inclined to question whether the North Central Association can expect to get very far in its attack upon such a momentous problem through the work of a committee scattered over a thousand miles of territory, each member of which is decidedly busy in his own community. The solution of the problem of such magnitude, if it is to command the respect of the North Central Association, requires ample time and means. This association has the alternative of continuing its study upon the present plan for a number of years with slow progress, or of revising its form of attack with the expectation of more rapid progress in the solution of the problem.

Then, too, there is the question of finance. This committee has been fortunate in having had placed at its disposal by the North Central Association a sum of money sufficiently adequate to do all that it has undertaken to do this year. If a more concentrated attack were made upon the problem, however, so that results would be forthcoming in the immediate future, more adequate financial support would be necessary. In other words, this committee, while it is perfectly willing to have a study of the field of professional training car-

ried on in this fashion by this committee or any other committee which the North Central Association cares to set up, feels that the size of the problem and the need of more immediate action would warrant the North Central Association in seeking to interest some foundation in this study, to the end that it might be given the full-time of one or more specialists who could direct the work of a group of workers. All of this, of course, would cost more money. We suggest that the North Central Association take due thought of what it expects to accomplish through this committee and determine whether it has set up the sort of organization to get results.

Third tentative conclusion. The specification that secondary school teachers must have from 11 to 15 hours of work in departments or schools of education is too inadequate a statement of these requirements to assure ourselves of any certain growth or development on the part of incoming teachers. We are not arguing that the amount of training ought to be raised from 11 to 15 hours to 20 or 30, because we are not sure that a larger amount of training is what is needed. We object to the logical, formal organization of these courses as now taught in most teacher training institutions. We fear that there is too little correlation between success in these courses and ability to teach and that if one's ability to teach before taking the courses could be measured against one's ability to teach after taking the courses, we should be disappointed in the result. Too much time is spent in studying about education and too little time in learning to educate. Students hear, in courses in educational psychology, that we learn

by doing; that practice, with satisfying results, makes perfect; that interest, effort and activity have a direct relation to the rate of learning, but the instructors find their educational theories belied by the educational practice of the institutions in which they teach, for many teacher training institutions attempt to teach students how to teach with inadequate opportunity to observe skillful teaching or to participate in appropriate phases of the process. Indeed, in most schools, participating in teaching represents but a minor activity in the total process of being trained to be a teacher.

Fourth tentative conclusion. The great variety in skills and techniques which directors of practice teaching are undertaking to teach and the varying degrees of importance they attach to each is some evidence of the fact that as yet we are in doubt as to what are the important things to teach the beginning teachers. We evidently need the results of some such studies as are now under way and which are calculated to show us the specific important tasks which teachers are asked to do most frequently. If the experience of our profession proves to be like that of others we shall be able to demonstrate that certain definite techniques should be the common property of every practitioner, while others, though known to and understood by all, are practiced only by the specialist.

Sixth tentative conclusion. A flier in the U. S. army after months of ground training must have 100 hours practice flying to his credit before he is rated as an aviator and allowed to carry a single passenger into the air. North Central teacher training institutions with greater abandon entrust 30

or 40 American children on a nine months educational cruise to a teacher with as little as 30 hours of student teaching under observation and direction. Either the teaching process is simpler, the students more apt, or we are satisfied with more poorly trained beginners.

Seventh tentative conclusion. The time to rewrite the curriculum of the institutions training secondary teachers is not yet, for it is the last step in a cycle of developments in which we are now but on the first. No one can develop the future curriculum of training for secondary school teachers until we have settled, in the secondary school, what are to be the emphases and objectives of secondary education. Until this time, training institutions cannot tell for sure what to teach prospective teachers to teach. The American secondary school at present is developing a philosophy of its own. As it does this, it modifies its program in keeping with this philosophy. As it makes these modifications, teacher training institutions will take the cue for new emphases and new content in the process of teacher training. They cannot be expected to anticipate these developments.

*Recommendations* of the committee. A recommendation is made covering a matter of which the committee feels reasonably certain. We have tried to be conservative in these recommendations and, as a matter of fact, are deferring several recommendations which we might make this year simply because we do not care to be premature in our action. We are making only two recommendations. One, if accepted, would call for North Central action. The other would simply express the attitude



of the North Central Association in the matter and tend to formulate practice among the colleges of the North Central Association.

First recommendation. *Special training for teaching the major subject matter fields.* The North Central commission on Secondary Schools should re-write standard 7(a) to provide special training for teaching the major subject-matter fields. This standard should apply to entering teachers only, to major subject-matter fields only, should be put into effect gradually and should make a special provision for small high schools of few teachers.

Second recommendation. *Two Majors*

*for Student Teachers.* Candidates should be prepared to teach in not less than two subject-matter fields. For want of a better standard of measurement we must define "prepared to teach" as implying not less than 20 carefully selected and well planned hours of college work in the subject-matter field. To this end deans of teachers colleges and heads of departments of education should approve all academic elections of those who are candidates for teaching certificates. Curriculums thus approved should meet the requirement for the A. B. or B. S. degree even though the degree issues from the liberal arts college.

## Part II. Introductory Historical Statement

The North Central Association is interested in adequate professional training for secondary school teachers. The purpose of an accrediting agency is to attempt to maintain at higher and higher levels uniform standards of work in colleges and secondary schools throughout a geographic area in which there is considerable inter-change of students. Standards are therefore set up by every accrediting agency in a number of different fields affecting the quality of education done in different school systems.

Among these standards are those which affect the teacher and his preparation for teaching in an accredited school. Perhaps it is not going too far to say that standards having to do with the professional training of teachers are the most important standards maintained by accrediting agencies.

The North Central Association has established somewhat higher standards

than other accrediting agencies. Within the association, however, those of you who are familiar with the history of the organization know there has been discussion from time to time as to the adequacy of these standards. In recent years this discussion has led to the appointment of committees to consider the question of adequate professional training for secondary school teachers in the North Central Association schools.

At the annual meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for the year 1924, a committee of the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula, under the chairmanship of Dean C. E. Chadsey, made a report on Content of College and University Courses of Education. This report was printed in the proceedings of that year, and the committee was continued for the purpose of securing additional data concerning the report. The original report of the committee,

together with its supplementary statements, were presented for the consideration of the Association at the annual meeting in 1925. This committee had devoted itself exclusively to the study of the under-graduate courses in education in the colleges and universities. It found, among other things, many courses which are not really acceptable as education. A great deal of overlapping was found in these courses. The committee made certain recommendations on the basis of its findings. The Association went on record as approving the general spirit of the report but did not adopt its specific findings.

It was the feeling of members of the Association that another investigation should be instituted, wider in scope than the one just referred to and more exhaustive in method. This desire on the part of the Association found expression in the following resolution which was adopted:

"Moved that the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula be requested to initiate an investigation of the general problem of the professional training of secondary school teachers, including a study of typical domestic and foreign methods, with a view first, to determining whether and to what extent graduate instruction should supplement or be substituted for the present system of under-graduate teachers training courses.

"Second, to securing for prospective teachers the benefits of effective practice teaching under competent direction.

"Third, to indicating a procedure that may bring about more uniformity in the minimum legal requirements of the various states in the North Central territory with reference to the professional training of teachers.

"I move the adoption of this resolution.

"The motion was seconded and carried."

The matter was referred to the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula for action. The minutes show that it was the intention to create a committee with wide latitude in an unrestricted field. In December, 1926, the commission organized a committee for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of the resolutions, consisting of L. W. Brooks, Wichita High School; H. L. Miller, University of Wisconsin; H. H. Ryan, University of Michigan; M. H. Stuart, Arsenal Technical High School; C. H. Threlkeld, Des Moines\*. G. W. Willett Lyons Township High School; and chairman Will French, Lincoln; Dr. F. E. Henzlik, University of Nebraska, has acted as research member and his critical examination of our methods and material and his constructive suggestions have contributed much to the work of this committee.

#### Summary of Preliminary Work of the Committee

This committee, as a result of two meetings and some correspondence, prepared a preliminary report which it presented to the Unit Courses and Curricula Commission and to the North Central Association in March 1927. That report is published in the North Central Association Quarterly, September 1927, pages 194 and 195.

In that report the committee set up a tentative plan of attack for the year 1927-1928. The committee stated in

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\*Resigned upon leaving North Central territory. F. L. Bacon, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois, appointed March 1, 1928.

its first report that it could not undertake the solution of all the various problems and studies set out and implied in the resolution which brought this committee into existence; that it proposed to make no attempt to do so; and that it did not propose to compete with endowed, permanently staffed organizations working on the problem. It conceived its immediate task to be that of reporting certain facts relative to the professional training of teachers in North Central states and suggested that its ultimate task might require long periods of observed experiments with careful evaluation of findings. It did not then, and does not now, consider that it is capable of formulating, even as the result of several years work, a scientifically revised curriculum for the professional training of high school teachers.

Among the things which the committee thought it might be able to do was to gather some usable facts and information about the following:

1. Resume of the literature of the field of professional training.
2. Present practice in nomenclature and content of courses in education.
3. A factual study of the types of arrangement for, and operation of practice teaching work in North Central colleges and universities.
4. Minimum legal requirements for certification.
5. The maximum hours in education allowed for the under-graduate degree in North Central colleges and universities.
6. Differences between graduate and under-graduate courses in education in various colleges and universities.

This committee at this time proposes to give an account of the results of its activity during the past year.

### Organization of Work of the Current Year

Immediately after the North Central Association meeting of last March the chairman undertook to interest various North Central Association colleges and universities in the problems set forth in its preliminary report. The idea was to set in motion a cooperative study of the question of professional training of high school teachers in as many universities and colleges in the North Central territory as could be interested therein. The purposes of this were two-fold. In the first place, the committee could not, through its own membership, undertake and carry forward with any speed these various studies. Each of the members of the committee holds a position to which he is devoting his time, energy and thought. They could ill-afford to spend enough time to push these studies through to a rapid completion. The cooperative scheme offered an opportunity to utilize the efforts of graduate students in a number of universities. These students were going to do work of this character for a thesis anyway and they might better spend the time on material which could be used by this committee than on some material which would serve very little, if any, useful purpose after having been utilized as a basis for a master's thesis.

The second purpose the committee had in mind was to interest as many teachers training institutions in North Central territory in our study as we could. A cooperative plan of work has certain obvious advantages to both this

committee and the North Central Association.

The committee has been more successful in getting the cooperation of institutions than it had hoped. The body of this report will show that a number of studies has been carried on in a number of universities. If the committee continues its work next year it will be glad to correspond with other schools for the purpose of instituting certain studies therein. The committee is free to say that had it not been for the fine spirit shown by instructors and graduate students in these colleges, it would have been impossible to have carried forward these studies to such an early conclusion. The committee feels that the North Central Association owes a debt of thanks to these cooperating schools.

Our contacts as members of this committee have resulted in some unity of thought and feeling in the committee. There are still points at which we do not agree, and there always will be, but as far as the work of this committee is concerned, we are beginning to have some common points of view not only within the field of professional training, but also in connection with what this committee can do to help in the solution of some of the problems of teacher training.

Let us proceed to a resume of the studies actually made by this committee since March 1927.

### A Resume of the Literature of Professional Training

One study which this committee proposed to make was a resumé of the literature of the field of professional training. The purpose we had in mind was to provide the committee with a picture of the work which had been done in this field. This would save us from duplicating work well enough done and recently enough done to make duplication unnecessary and undesirable.

A second purpose was to provide the North Central Association with a rather complete bibliography of the field in convenient and usable form. We are indebted to the college of education of the University of Cincinnati for this study. The resumé covers the field of professional training not only for senior high school teachers, but for junior high school teachers as well.

It is hereby submitted as part of the report of this committee. When you have opportunity to study it, the committee thinks you will be surprised at the number and variety of studies which have been made in this field. Many of them are carefully planned and well written and advocate positions much in advance of those ordinarily held by school men in secondary schools and colleges. In this field of education, as in many others, our practice is lagging far behind the best theories and principles that have been developed and tested.



## Part III. An Annotated Bibliography on Teacher Training for Secondary Schools\*

### PART I

#### For Junior High Schools

- BENNETT, G. V. "The Junior High School." Warwick & York. Chapter 7, p. 156. Advocates distinct courses for junior high school, and favors the movement for centralizing the training of teachers in state supported universities. Gives qualifications of an ideal teacher.
- BRIGGS, T. H. "The Junior High School." Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1920. Riverside Press. Cambridge. Chapter 8, pp. 210-20. Cites the requirements of teachers' professionalization in California, Minnesota, and Ohio in 1916. Reviews the standards recommended by Lewis, Davis, and Gosling.
- DAVIS, C. O., and  
LEWIS, E. E. "Problems of the Junior High School." (Problem D 2—The training of the teacher in service.) The Public School Publishing Co. Bloomington, Ill. 1925. Suggests that auxiliary teacher training for junior high schools be conducted by someone fitted for the task. Direct training in service is a good way to standardized instruction, and unify the junior high school with other divisions of the educational system.
- FAIRCHILD, R. "The Preparation of Teachers for the Junior High School." School Board Jnl. January 24, 1920. pp. 24-28. Urges more specialized training for the junior high school teachers. Enumerates the purposes of the institution, and shows how the general type training is inadequate in preparing the teacher for their accomplishment.
- FOUNTAIN, M. "A Program for Training Teachers of English Composition for Junior High Schools." Educational Administration and Supervision. April, 1921. pp. 205-16. Proposes the separation of composition teaching from the general English Course, and the adoption of special methods for training the composition teacher. Outlines a program for this purpose.
- FOSTER, H. H. "Student Teaching and the Training of the Junior High School Teacher." Educational Administration and Supervision. September, 1922. pp. 349-51. Handles the problem of student teaching under four heads, The Need, The Demand, The Supply, and The Character of Student Teaching necessary for the proper training of the beginning junior high school teacher.
- GAUMNITZ, W. "Provisions Made by Colleges and Normal Schools to Give a Special Type of Training to Teachers of Junior High Schools." This article is an objective study related to the making of curricula for the training of junior high school teachers, as carried on in colleges and normal schools. Educational Administration and Supervision. November, 1925. pp. 556-71.
- GOSLING, T. W. "The Selection and Training of Teachers for Junior High Schools." 18th Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education. 1919. pp. 166-89. Reviews the purposes of the junior high school, and recommends the careful selection and training of teachers for the successful realization of these purposes.
- HINES, H. C. "Junior High School Curriculum." The McMillan Co. 1924. Discusses teacher training along with each curriculum subject—no separate treatment of the problem. Mentions need of professional and academic training, and the prerequisites of personality of the successful teacher.
- KNOWLTON, D. "History and the Other Social Studies in the Junior High School." Charles Scribner & Sons. 1926. pp. 193-95. Teachers being trained for teaching the social studies must be well grounded and especially trained in the social studies subjects. Broad social outlook essential part of the training.
- KOOS, L. V. "The Junior High School." Ginn & Co. 1927. pp. 448-60. Reviews the

\*Prepared by J. L. Grogan; University of Cincinnati, 1928.

status of the junior high school teachers as revealed by the survey conducted by Strayer in 1920-21. Cites Gaumnitz's findings as to the facilities for training found in colleges and normal schools, and then presents his own recommendations in the matter.

MC GREGOR, L. "Preparing Teachers for the Junior High School." *Educational Review*. March, 1925. pp. 140-42. Much of the article is devoted to defining a junior high school. The latter part describes the Summer Course provided by the University of Rochester for the training of junior high school teachers.

PRESTON, J. T. "The Status of the Berkeley California Junior High School Teachers." *U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin* No. 4, 1923. p. 16. Gives an historical review of the standardizing of both the teachers and the junior high schools themselves through the teachers satisfying certification requirements.

PROCTOR, W. M. "The Training of Teachers for the Junior High School." *Educational Administration and Supervision*. January, 1925. pp. 13-17. Discusses the meaning and advantages of the junior high school, and the necessity of more specialized training of teachers for the realization of all that is demanded of the institution.

STACY, C. R. "The Training of Teachers for the Intermediate Grades." *Educational Administration and Supervision*. June, 1926. pp. 448-56. Gives the main reasons for the shift from the old 8-4 plan, and traces the impetus given the junior high school movement to the work of the N. E. A. Committees. Discusses the minimum essentials both academic and professional for the training of teachers.

STRAYER, S. B. "The Status of Teachers in the Junior High School." *School Review*. May, 1921. pp. 379-87. Notes the tendency toward three grade junior high school, and the extent to which the movement had covered the country. Salaries and the degree of specialization and training found among junior high school teachers revealed by lengthy statistical charts.

## PART II

### For High Schools in General

ALEY, R. J. "The Articulation of Higher and Secondary Education Through Teaching and Teachers." *Proceedings of The National Educational Association*. 1909. pp. 198-203. Discusses need of secondary reorganization, the tendency of colleges and universities toward training high school teachers, and hopes for general improvement in both teaching and teachers.

ALMACK, J. C., and

LONG, A. R. "Problems of the Teaching Profession." Chapter 2, p. 19. Houghton-Mifflin Co. Riverside Press. 1925. Teaching, since it is the beginning of all professions, ought to and must adopt professional standards both uniform and proportionate with the size of the importance of the work. Believes that the extent of training should be commensurate with the amount of return realized on the investment.

ANDREWS, W. E. "Training Teachers in the Small Public High School by Co-operative Study of Daily Work." *School & Home Education*. May, 1927. pp. 247-50. Points out fact that small schools must take ill-prepared teachers and work them over into efficient operators, which task is largely of the project kind in which the whole staff co-operates. The small high school is the source of many of the excellent teachers in the larger schools.

ASHBAUGH, E. J. "The Need of Uniformity in the Certification of Teachers." *School Life*. April, 1922. pp. 154-55. Opens with brief history of the certification movement. Uniformity of training practices in the several states the only possible way to realize safe reciprocal validation of one another's certificates. Secondary education most endangered by lax practices in vogue in certification agencies.

BAGLEY, W. C. "The Professional Training of High School Teachers." *Proceedings of The National Educational Association*. 1912. pp. 686-91. Urges the better professionalization of teachers through higher standards of training. Training should develop personality traits needed in the work of teaching. Professionalization

- for teachers in all departments of education greatly needed.
- BARRETT, H. M. "The Preparation of High School Teachers." *Proceedings of the National Educational Association*. 1907. pp. 541-47. Blames poor teaching results in secondary education to over specialization, and the overlooking of the human side of the pupils by the teacher. Normal school not equal to the task of training high school teacher who must be both academically and professionally trained.
- BOLTON, F. E. "The Preparation of High School Teachers." *School Review*. February 1907. pp. 97-122. Gives results of amount of training possessed by a number of teachers in high schools over the country as ascertained by a questionnaire. Reviews various state laws on teacher training, and ends by urging a statistical check-up on the actual amount of training generally held by high schools teachers in U. S., and Germany.
- BOLTON, F. E. "Requirements and Standards in the Preparation of High School Teachers." *Proceedings of The National Educational Association*. 1907. pp. 600-16. Suggests the necessary requirements for certification. Notes that most states do not differentiate secondary teacher training from the elementary. Favors State issuance of certificates on the basis of examination.
- BROOKS, S. D. "The Preparation of High School Teachers." *Proceedings of The National Educational Association*. 1907. pp. 547-51. Discusses needed academic and professional subjects in secondary teacher training. General training of teachers much too inadequate.
- BROWN, E. E. "The Need of Better Preparation of Teachers for Secondary Schools." *Education*. December, 1913. pp. 201-06. Contrasts the old time teacher with the new, and lays the change to the complication of modern life. Reviews the gradual elevation of standards of preparation, showing how the movement arose in the realm of education itself.
- BROWN, E. E. "The Making of Our Middle Schools." *Longmans-Green Co.* 1907. pp. 250-51, 428-29, 443-47. Traces teacher training in this country to the old academy, which was followed by the normal school. Gives statistics on training conditions in the 1890's. Teacher more important than the subject, hence the need for thorough preparation. Teaching largely a matter of individuality.
- BROWN, J. F. "The Training of Teacher for Secondary Schools in Germany and U. S." *The McMillan Co.* 1914. Part 1—Contains information as to the training and certification requirements of German secondary school teachers, laws, training institutions, methods, and the author's impressions. Part 2—Reviews the then existing laws for certification in U. S., the need for higher training standards, and suggests incorporating the best of German practices into American systems.
- BROWN, J. F. "The American High School." *The McMillan Co.* 1913. pp. 198 and 395. Psychology, Physiology and Biology mentioned as basic essentials of all teacher training—on these, academic and professional training assume a new value and meaning. Inefficiency in secondary education traceable to poor teaching—poor teaching to poor training.
- BROWN, S. J. "The Preparation of High School Teachers." *Proceeding of The National Educational Association*. 1907. pp. 551-55. Effective secondary teaching depends on degree of Physical, Mental, and Spiritual health possessed by the teacher. Proper training develops all three of these qualities. Only broad training is productive of good teaching.
- BUCHNER, F. "The Professional Preparation of Secondary Teachers in 15 Southern States." *Proceedings of The National Educational Association*. 1907. pp. 618-28. The article reviews the legal training requirements of 15 southern states, and the special, academic and professional courses offered for high school teachers, and the amount of practice teaching provided before actual employment.
- BURSTALL, S. A. "English High Schools for Girls." *Longmans-Green Co.* 1907. p. 241. University degree and professional training indispensable for the training of worthwhile teachers. Theory of little value

without practice—hence, the need of practice teaching.

CLEMENT, J. A. "Principles and Practices of Secondary Education." The Century Co. 1925. pp. 30-31. Approves separation of Liberal Arts and Education Departments in Universities. Notes tendencies in normal school to become 4 year colleges for high teachers. Favors more professional training and greater interest.

COLVIN, S. S. "An Introduction to High School Teaching." The McMillan Co. 1918. pp. 117-20. Notes lack of uniformity of training standards, and the general inadequate conditions prevailing everywhere. Gives a portrait of the ideal teacher, and stresses need for more professionalization.

COLVIN, S. S. "The Most Common Faults of Beginning High School Teachers." 18th Year book of The National Society For the Study of Education. 1919. pp. 262-72. Article is based on 112 papers of self criticism written by beginning teachers. Majority of faults due to timidity, lack of foresight, and lax control measures.

COOK, J. W. "The Capacities and Limitations of Normal Schools in the Preparation Professionally of High School Teachers." Proceedings of The National Educational Association. 1907. pp. 628-38. Discusses the type of general and special scholarship needed by high school teachers, and the inability of the normal school to provide this, unless it comes to offer special academic training which it is able to do, with sufficient reorganization.

COOK, W. A. "High School Administration." Warwick & York. 1926. pp. 136 to 139. Urges professional training and constant improvement of secondary teachers. There is a need for high school teachers to write their own texts, and greater professional training will enable them to do this. Professional interest is indicated by reading educational periodicals and attending educational meetings.

CUBBERLEY, E. P. "The Preparation of High school teachers." Proceedings of The National Educational Association. 1907. pp. 555-558. High Schools must suit themselves more to the needs of youth, which is mainly to be done by more thorough train-

ing of teachers who must have both general and special academic and professional training.

DAVIS, C. O. "Public Secondary Education." Rand-McNally Co. 1914. pp. 237-39. College bred teachers superior to those otherwise trained. Teacher training schools should have distinct and uniform programs for preparing high school teachers.

DAVIS, C. O. "The Training of Teachers in The North Central Association's Accredited High Schools." School & Society. pp. 389-94. Quotes statistics from U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 37, 1922, on the increase of high schools, teachers, both men and women, and pupils, boys and girls. Discusses the problem of training teachers in the light of these developments.

DeGARMO, Chas. "The Preparation of High School Teachers." Proceedings of The National Educational Association. 1907. pp. 558-63. Teacher training institutions only train for the elementary school. High school teaching vastly more complicated, hence the need for distinct training. Thorough academic and professional, finished by specialized training the only proper training for secondary teachers.

DeGARMO, Chas. "The professional Training of Teachers for the Secondary Schools of Germany." Proceedings of The National Educational Association. 1907. pp. 638-44. Cites the many rigid requirements and certification demands for the training of the German High School Teacher. The author's comments at the end of the paper are of interest.

DEXTER, E. G. "The Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools." Proceedings of The National Educational Association. 1907 pp. 644-61. A lengthy paper on the training conditions existing in the leading teacher training institutions over the country at that time.

DILLA, G. P. "A College Course in the Teaching of Secondary School English." Peabody Jnl. of Education. March, 1925 pp. 258-64. Advocates the methods courses for training high school teachers in colleges and universities be given by specialists from the arts and sciences departments.



Presents an English course of some merit in the paper.

DUNN, O. W. "The Social Studies in Education." U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 28, 1916. pp. 58-60. Attributes the unsatisfactory teaching of social studies to inadequate preparation of teachers. Better academic and special methods training must be had.

FINLEY, C. W. "Biology in Secondary Schools and the Training of Biology Teachers." N. Y. City Teachers' College, Columbia University's Contribution to Education Series No. 199, 1926. This narrowed aspect of teacher training concerns itself with the amount of specialization necessary for the biology teacher.

FITZPATRICK, E. A., and

HUTSON, P. W. "The Scholarship of Teachers in Secondary Schools." pp. 34-35, 83-85, 87-91, 153. The McMillan Co. 1927. This book gives a thorough handling of both the amount of scholarship possessed by teachers, and also the training standards generally operating.

FRANK, J. O. "The Preparation of Teachers for High schools in Wisconsin Normal Schools." School Review. January, 1923. pp. 16-27. Details how the normal school was the chief training agency for Wisconsin high school teachers, and lists some of its development aspects in providing academic and professional training on a par with colleges and universities.

GILES, J. T. "A Review of Educational Progress in High Schools of Madison, Wisconsin in the Last Year." Proceedings of the National Educational Association. 1927. pp. 285-86. The article describes the advance made in both the preparation and guidance of training high school teachers. Prof. Edmonson's resolutions regarding the placing of teachers on the basis of training are also mentioned.

GLEN, I. M. "College Preparation for Teachers of Music in Secondary Schools." Proceedings of the National Educational Association. 1915. pp. 858-63. Mentions the unsympathetic attitude existing between regular faculty members and the special subject teachers, due to difference of outlook. Recommends regular academic

and professional training received by legitimate subject teachers, plus the specialized training necessary for their arts as a means of standardizing these people.

HALLECK, R. P. "The Professional Preparation of Teachers." School Review. Sept. 1907. pp. 489-507. Mr. Halleck was the Chairman of the N. E. A. Committee of 1907, which recommended the standards so largely in vogue today. The article is a summary of the recommendations of the seventeen members.

HALL-QUEST, A. L. "Professional Secondary Education in Teachers' Colleges." Columbia University's Contribution to Education Series No. 169, 1925. Sizes up the conditions prevailing. A history of professionalization is given. Recommends more standardization and uniformity in courses, type and amount of practice teaching, and more specialization in subject matter.

HANUS, P. H. "The Preparation of High School Teachers." Proceedings of the National Educational Association. 1907. pp. 563-77. Believes that training should be directed toward developing the high school teacher into a scholarly, kindly, scientific, socially-minded person, and one who will be equal to the task of preparing efficient leaders of society.

HILLYER, T. A. "Professional Training for Teachers of Secondary Schools in Colleges and Universities." Proceedings of the National Educational Association. 1909. pp. 587-92. Notes the monopoly on elementary teacher training held by the normal school, and expresses the hope that secondary education will not be monopolized by colleges and universities. Believes that both normal schools and universities should train all grades of teachers.

HOLLAND, E. O. "The Preparation of High School Teachers." Proceedings of the National Educational Association. 1907. pp. 577-81. Reviews progress of the High School. Teachers have a vast responsibility and must be trained to be equal to their trusts.

HOLLISTER, H. A. "Courses in Education Best Adapted to the Needs of High School Teachers and Principals." School & Home Education. April, 1917. pp. 216-21. The

- Article concerns itself with what seems to be the minimum content courses which secondary teachers and principals should have. It is based on the efforts of the North Central Association to professionalize education.
- HORN, John L. "Five Proposals for Improving Secondary School Education." *School & Society*. January, 1927. The proposals are for the improvement of certification, professional motivation of teachers, specialization and departmentalization, personnel conditions, and salaries.
- HOSIC, J. F. "The Reorganization of English in Secondary Schools." U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 2, 1917. pp. 29-32. Stresses the great need of the trained specialist for teaching high school English. Training too general and ineffective. Professionalization harmed.
- ILES, R. C. "The Place of the Social Sciences in the Training of Teachers." *Peabody Jnl. of Education*. July 1926. pp. 42-46. The article is an enthusiastic support of the socialization idea, and recommends all teaching to be socialized as much as possible, and stresses the need for more training of teachers in social ideas and appreciations.
- INGLIS, Alex. "Principles of Secondary Education." Houghton-Mifflin Co. 1918. pp. 308-10. Urges better articulation between the high school and normal institution, so that teachers will be better able to fit themselves as specialists. Proper training must be academically broad and professionally high in standard.
- IVY, H. M. "The Professional Training for Teachers in Secondary Schools." *Proceedings of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States*. 1926. pp. 343-48. The paper quotes the recommendations for specific requirements in the way of professional training to be applied to all teachers coming into the secondary schools of the association.
- JACOBS, W. B. "Practice Teaching for Secondary School Teachers at Brown University." *School & Society*. April, 1916. pp. 533-35. A brief history of the policy followed at Brown in the selection, training, and practicing of the beginning teachers training there since 1895.
- JOHNSON, F. W. "The Administration and Supervision of the High School." Ginn & Co. 1925. pp. 20-21. Complains that secondary teacher training remains much too unstandardized, and that examinations alone will not suffice to insure teacher ability from the certification standpoint.
- JOHNSTON, C. H. "High School Education." Charles Scribners' Sons. 1912. pp. 181, 224-25, 236, 239, 275, 330, 350. Treats the training of teachers under each activity of the high school. Favors specialization. Poor training in subject mastery responsible for most bad teaching. Too much overlooking the human side of pupils charged.
- JUDD, Chas. H. "The Preparation of High School Teachers." *Proceedings of the National Educational Association*. 1907. pp. 582-587. Questions the advisability of simply training teachers as specialists. Also condemns a too broad type training. Recommends that secondary teachers know education in all its phases, as is in keeping with the best professional standards.
- KENDALL, C. N. "The Training of High School Teachers." *School Review*. February 1913. pp. 92-102. Discusses the supply and demand aspect of teacher training, and the various agencies operating to produce low grade teaching talent in the profession. Full academic, and professional training plus observation and practice teaching under experts the only way to assure good teaching.
- KIRK, John R. "Will the Same Training in Normal School Serve to Prepare the Teacher for both Elementary and High School Work." *Proceedings of the National Educational Association*. 1907. pp. 661-68. Contends that simply to train a candidate without knowing his or her abilities for teaching is wrong. Training should be the directing and exercising of native genius for the work.
- KOOS, L. V. "Teacher Training Departments in North Central High Schools." *School Review*. April. 1917. pp. 249-56. An article, composed of statistics as to

training facilities generally found in these high schools, and related matters.

KOOS, L. V. "The Training of Teachers in Accredited High Schools in the State of Washington." 18th Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education. 1919. pp. 213-56. The study reveals the degree of conformity to the recommendations of the N. E. A. Committee of 1907, which the State of Washington has realized. Full academic and professional training in keeping with the latest standards is urged.

LUCKEY, G. W. A. "The Preparation of Teachers." Proceedings of The National Educational Association. 1907. pp. 587-92. The point is made that education must keep pace with the complications of modern life, and that the training of teachers is the only assurance that it will. Complete professionalization the only satisfactory teacher training device.

MARTIN, G. H. "The Preparation of the High School Teacher." Proceedings of The National Educational Association. 1907. pp. 592-97. Points out the fact that normal schools were only formed to handle elementary teacher training—the high school teacher being left to the college for training which agency gave only academic development. Student mortality in high school traced to this cause—professionalization in high school teacher strongly recommended.

MC FARLAND, R. "Present Facilities for the Training of Secondary School Teachers in the New England States." Education. Dec. 1913. pp. 207-12. An historical sketch of teacher training as a distinct educational function in the leading universities of the New England States, dating from 1871. Harvard, Clark, Wellesley, Radcliff, Brown, and Mt. Holyoke are the institutions listed.

MCGREGOR, D. "The Professional Training for Teachers of Secondary Schools." Proceedings of the National Educational Association. 1909. pp. 581-87. Notes tendency of colleges and universities over the country to form educational departments and to stress the training of high school teachers. Advantages and disadvantages

of both the normal and university types of training are given. Suggests that both institutions remain unlimited in their activities—competition stimulates.

MEAD, A. R. "Resume of Work of the Committee on Practice Teaching for Secondary School Teachers." 18th Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education. 1919. pp. 258-61. A thorough treatment of the practice teaching problem. Full details of the recommendations of the committee are given from the standpoint of standardization.

MEAD, CHAMBERS, CHILD, GRAY. "Practice Teaching for Teachers of Secondary Schools." U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 29, 1917. pp. 72-75. Finds that in general, Methods of Procedure vary, Guiding Principles are vague, and that Administrative and Supervisory matters are often obstacles to the efficient carrying on of the work.

MILLER, H. L. "The University of Wisconsin Plan for the Preparation of High School Teachers." 18th Year Book of The National Society for the Study of Education. 1919. pp. 7-16. A thorough enough plan, but involved and needlessly augmented by inconsequential. It has value as a procedure measure.

MINER, J. B. "Provision for a Post Senior Year for High School Science Teachers." Jnl. of Educational Psychology. March, 1918. pp. 219-20. Reviews Carnegie Tech's post senior year of professional preparation for those contemplating teaching physical sciences in high schools.

NEWCOMB, R. S. "The Present Status of Teachers of High Schools in Normal Schools and Teacher Colleges." School Review. March, 1923. pp. 380-87. The article discusses the main reasons why normal schools adopt 4 year programs for the training of secondary teachers, and gives the factors which necessitated this move.

NUTT, H. W. "Principles of Teaching High School Pupils." The Century Co. 1924. pp. 13-15. The main point made is that teachers cannot focus on the subject to be taught and ignore the limitations and interests of high school pupils. Better professional training will correct this evil.

- ORR, Wm. "The Aims and Standards for the Preparation of Secondary School Teachers in New England." *Education*. 1913. pp. 213-16. Studies the preparation of teachers of academic subjects in the general run of small public high schools, whose teaching staffs do not exceed five in number. This type high school is in the majority in the New England States.
- O'SHEA, M. V. "The Preparation of High School Teachers." *Proceedings of The National Educational Association*. 1907. pp. 597-600. Professional interest and attention, accompanied by a high degree of scholarship absolutely essential for success in high school teaching. These matters can only be brought about through proper training.
- PETERSON, M. "Teachers Should Have Preparation Equal to that Required for Good Secondary Instruction." *Proceedings of the National Educational Association*. 1920. p. 239. This paper sounds like the answer an intelligent layman might give if asked his opinion on teacher training. It has little professional merit to it.
- RAINLEY, E. H. P. "The Problem of Training High School Teachers in Oregon." *Educational Administration and Supervision*. February, 1926. pp. 110-130. The problem of the proper training of teachers rests on the curriculum of the high school in which the teacher functions. Any program of training ignoring this is of little use. Oregon plans its teacher training courses according to the curricular needs of the high school.
- REAVIS, W. C. "The Determination of the Professional Curriculums for the Training of Teachers in Secondary Schools." *School Review*. January, 1924. pp. 27-35. Finds that the same lack of standardization of teacher training for secondary schools, so evident in 1918, remains little changed in 1924. Uniformity of standards the crying need. Also, that colleges are not training any more effectively than did the normal schools, for all their claims.
- ROBERT, C. B. "The Training of Secondary school Teachers." *School Review*. May, 1913. pp. 225-34. Attributes the variations found in teacher training over the country to be due to different types of laws in the several states, which regulate this matter. The Pittsburg Plan is cited as an effective means of teacher Training.
- SACHS, Julius. "The American Secondary School and Some of its Problems." The McMillan Co. 1912. p. 18. The main point of the discussion is that teachers' meetings instead of being productive of professional betterment are as a rule interminable periods of bickering and time wasting. Professional interest must be fostered within the schools as well as in the training institutions.
- SAUVAIN, Edward. "The Pittsburgh Plan of High School Practice Teaching from the High School Point of View." *Educational Administration and Supervision*. September, 1924. pp. 363-67. A defense of the Plan, and enthusiastic at that. The peculiar needs of high school education demands that teachers be practiced in the field itself.
- SEERLEY, H. H. "The State Normal Schools and the Training of High School Teachers." *Proceedings of The National Educational Association*. 1915. pp. 809-13. Overdoing the matter of specialization, is assigned as the cause of the differentiation in the training teachers found over the country. Contends that high school pupils do not respond to specialization, because of the invariable effect it has upon the teacher.
- SEERLEY, H. H. "The Preparation of Teachers for High Schools." *Proceedings of The National Educational Association*. 1914. pp. 529-32. The personality and amount of training which a high school teacher should have depends on the standards and the needs of the community in which the teacher operates. Urban teachers need more thorough training than do rural. All secondary teachers should have good academic foundation, and professionalization equal to the demands of the community.
- SHARMAN, M. S., and
- MEAD, A. R. "Some Notes on the Preparation of Teachers for Secondary Schools at The University of Melbourne." *Educational Administration and Supervision*. February, 1926. pp. 131-33. A very interesting description of this state-controlled



system. The high standards, and thorough selective measures in operation are well worth reading.

SHILDER, S. E. "The Qualifications of Teachers in the Commissioned High Schools of Indiana." *School Review*. September, 1913. pp. 446-60. A survey of the amount of professional training possessed by Indiana secondary teachers. Some enlightening statistics.

SMILEY, W. H. "The High School Teacher's Professional Preparation." *Proceedings of The National Educational Association*. 1917. pp. 775-78. Contends that formalization of training beyond the bare logical necessities to be a menace. States should demand academic training and professional training in the basic principles of education, plus observation and practice teaching as the minimum essentials for accrediting.

SMITH, J. M. "The Training of High School Teachers in Louisiana." *Teachers' College, Columbia University's Contribution to Education* No. 247. 1926 This treatise is a thorough survey of the requirements, standards, and uniformity of practice in operation in the training of teachers for Louisiana High Schools. Valuable Professionally.

SMITH, F. W. "The High School." *Sturgis & Walton*. 1916. Links the problem of training high school teachers with the various secondary subjects. The general tone is to the effect that subject specialization and mastery is becoming more and more the requirement, and training of uniform sort is the only solution.

SNEDDEN, D. "Problems of Secondary Education." *Houghtin-Mifflin Co*. 1917. pp. 22-23. Notes tendency towards separation of the Educational from the Liberal Arts Departments in universities and colleges, and favors the steps. Better organization and standardization will result. Sees the time arriving when no one will be able to teach in a high school without a college or university degree.

SNEDDEN, D. "The Certification of High School Teachers." *Education*. January, 1911. pp. 234-38 States that in Massachu-

setts and elsewhere, there exists little uniformity of standards for the training of secondary teachers. Complains that most small high schools employ a college graduate, well enough prepared academically, but poorly professionalized—all of which is bad for the pupils. Uniformity and standardization of training practices and accrediting the only solution for the problem.

STIMSON, R. W. "Professional Preparation Work of Teachers for High School Agriculture." *American Education*. November, 1918. pp. 117-19. Believes that professional improvement tends to bring out the finest qualities in instructors. The paper then describes the training necessitated by the Smith-Hughes standards, and how the rural high school teacher becomes an aid in the community.

STRATTON, B. D. "The Preparation of High School Teachers." *Proceedings of The National Educational Association*. 1907. pp. 547-51. Where the subject engrosses the teacher, the point of view of the pupil is lost sight of. Academic training tends to specialization, professionalization ought to balance this trend, and will providing it is of the proper sort.

STUART, Hugh. "The Training of Modern Foreign Language Teachers in the Secondary Schools in the U. S." *Teachers' College, Columbia University's Contribution to Education Series* No. 256. 1927. A survey of training conditions as they effect the foreign language teacher. Finds that the majority of such teachers are native born and trained in colleges and universities. Some views from these teachers in appreciation of type of training they get are anything but flattering to the training institutions.

SUZZALO, Henry. "Minimum Qualifications for the Training and Certification of Secondary Teachers." *Proceedings of The National Educational Association*. 1907. pp. 252-56. Blames the school superintendents for the lax standards in the training and qualifications of high school teachers. Claims that they have it in their power to enforce requirements, but neglect to do so. Recommends a high degree of both academic and professional training.

WALKER, N. W. "The Preparation and Selection of Teachers for High Schools and Colleges." Proceedings of the 31st Annual Meeting of The Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in The Southern States. pp. 209-21. Details the standards and qualifications set up by law and arbitrary demands of school boards throughout the South, on which to operate a selection and training of teachers. This is resulting in the reorganization of many normal schools into four year training colleges.

WAPLES, Douglas. "The Pittsburgh Course in Unit Planning for Prospective High School Teachers." Educational Administration and Supervision. May, 1925. pp. 340-43. A more or less detailed account of the practices employed in the working of the Plan, and the co-operation of the students and faculty in constantly trying to improve the scheme.

WAPLES, Douglas. "The Pittsburgh Plan of High School Practice Teaching from the University Standpoint." Educational Administration and Supervision. September, 1924. pp. 354-62. An account of the ad-

ministrative and supervisory measures adopted in the operation of this plan of teacher training. An appreciation of the course by the candidates themselves is of interest.

WHIT CRAFT, L. H. "The Professional Preparation and Training of High School Teachers." School Review. March, 1924 pp. 218-23 compiled from 179 catalogues of teacher training institutions, showing conditions of uniformity in the matter of requirements and standards for training. The institutions are in the territory of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary schools.

WILLIAMS, L. A., and

RICE, G. A. "Principles of Secondary Education." Ginn and Co. 1927. pp. 118-19 Reviews teacher training from its beginning in this country. Female Seminaries were the first teacher training institutions in the country according to the authors. A contrast is made between conditions then and now. Favors both high academic and professional training as assurances of efficient teaching.

## Part IV. The Committee's Researches

Your committee, from this point on in its report has endeavored to consider the questions and problems which arise in the process of securing and developing secondary teachers as a consistent whole and therefore we have organized the available studies and researches under the following heads:

A. The background of those who seek teacher training in our colleges and universities.

B. Present practice in student participation in teaching.

C. The proportionate amount of professional and academic training commonly accepted for under-graduate degrees.

D. Characteristic differences be-

tween under-graduate and graduate courses in education.

E. Legal qualifications of teachers.

F. The College Placement Bureau and the Candidate.

G. The Work of the Beginning Teacher.

### A. Appraising the Potential Teacher

One of the important fields in which this committee is interested has to do with the individual and the qualities and capacities which he brings to the teacher training institution when he enters it. The other field has to do with what he is called upon to do in the first two or three years of teaching. Professional

training must bridge the gap, if any, between the abilities and capacities possessed by the individual and those needed when one first enters a position.

It is certainly obvious that no program of professional training for secondary school teachers can be set up without giving due consideration to the qualities, capacities and abilities possessed by those who are to receive the training. We are therefore interested in the following study of the background of the future teacher.

## THE BACKGROUND OF THE FUTURE TEACHER\*

### PURPOSE OF STUDY

According to the old adage, as is the teacher so is the school. Natural qualities possessed, the personnel of the home, economic and social conditions of the family all play an important part in determining the kind of education children receive. Being a leader, the social, civic, mental and character traits of the teacher are consciously or unconsciously held up by the children as desirable, if not as the highest ideals to be attained. The type of persons who seek entrance into the profession is a vital matter, therefore, and should not be passed by lightly. The rapid increase in attendance at our colleges and universities, where our future teachers largely receive their training, raises the question of their source. This may have an important bearing upon the quality of teaching, especially if to any great extent they come from homes and nationalities not entirely familiar and in sympathy with American institutions, traditions and ideals.

Who are these young men and women seeking to become our future teachers? From what social classes and from what kind of families and homes do they come? What are their intellectual and academic accomplishments? What are the social and economic conditions of the population from which they come? It is the purpose of this study to give earnest consideration to these and other questions of similar character.

### METHOD OF PROCEDURE

Several factors guided in the selection of the colleges from which to secure data for the study:

1. The institutions studied are the outstanding colleges which prepare students for teaching and have the authority of the state to grant teachers certificates.
2. The co-operation on the part of the institutions was easily secured.
3. They represented the different types of accredited institutions of higher learning in the state.

The co-operation of all the outstanding liberal arts colleges in the state as well as of the teachers colleges was, therefore, secured in making the study.

It was decided to use the freshmen students enrolled for the first semester in these respective institutions. Intelligence tests, achievement scores and semester grades were secured, tabulated and classified. A questionnaire was also resorted to to secure social and economic data, as well as facts of a personal nature, about the respective families and individuals concerned. The instructors, assigned the work of giving the tests and questionnaires in the respective institutions, were asked to secure the data at a regular meeting of the class and under their direction and supervision.

\*Stockdale, W. T.: *The Background of Nebraska's Future Teacher*. Unpublished thesis, University of Nebraska, Teachers College, 1928.

All tests were scored personally by the author of the study. Every possible precaution was taken to standardize the procedure and insure the reliability of the data. Students were assured that information given by them would not be used in any way which might disclose their identity.

#### SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

1. Complete data were had from 818 first year University students; 696 first year State Teachers College students; 753 first year students enrolled in the Denominational Colleges.

2. Thirty-six per cent of all first year men and eighty-six per cent of all the first year women enrolled in Nebraska Colleges studied were preparing to teach.

In the University, State Teachers Colleges, and Denominational Colleges respectively 20%, 74%, and 30% of the men enrolled were planning to teach; 82%, 96%, and 70% of the women so enrolled were planning to teach.

3. Forty-four per cent of all first year students enrolled who expect to teach are of English descent, while 47% of all those who enter all other occupations are of English descent. With the exception of English, there is a larger per cent of the various nationalities who are expecting to teach than are those who are preparing for other occupations. The 56% of foreign descent who expect to teach are classified approximately as follows: German 16%, Irish 10%, Scotch 8%, Swede 7%, French 3%, Dane 3%, Czek 2%, all others 7%.

4. In the main, it is the fathers and mothers of Anglo-Saxon descent who are sending their sons and daughters to college to train for teachers, as well as for other professions and occupations.

5. The 56% of foreign descent ex-

pecting to teach are largely well Americanized, if the use of the English language as a mode of speech in the home is taken as a criterion. English is the chief mode of speech in over 95% of the homes of those who expect to teach in public schools.

6. When the number of students of foreign parentage who expect to teach was compared with the number of foreign-born whites of the respective nationalities, as shown by the 1920 Census Report, a correlation of approximately .58 was found.

7. There is a tendency for students of German descent to attend the non-state co-educational institutions. This is true of those who are preparing for other vocations as well as for teaching. With respect to the other nationalities one is impressed with the similarity in percentages of the respective groups in both state and non-state institutions.

8. In view of the recent discussion about Nordic Stock it is interesting, if not significant, to note that a large per cent of those who are of foreign descent come from the peoples of northern Europe, less than 6% being of southern European ancestry. The generalization to be drawn is that the teachers at present are coming largely from native born stock and a large proportion of those listed as of foreign parentage are of northern European origin.

9. The results show that the students of English and German descent are slightly superior in native intelligence to the other race groups, but the Scandinavian and Bohemian or Czek groups rank slightly above in academic and scholastic achievements. The difference in either of these factors is too slight to be of any significance. As a whole it is the similarity of the different college groups



and race groups rather than the differences that impresses the investigator.

10. The extent of parental education enters into the background of our future teachers. This was measured in terms of educational levels. It was found that 55% of the fathers and 59% of the mothers of all students received only some form of rural or elementary education. The mother likewise led on the high school level, 23% having graduated from high school. On the college level the condition is reversed since 20% of the fathers received a college training, while only 12% of the mothers received a college education. The parents of the men who are not expecting to teach are decidedly better trained than the parents of the men who do expect to teach, while the parents of the women who are not expecting to teach have less schooling than do the parents of the women who are expecting to teach.

11. Seventy-nine per cent of the fathers of the men students and 72% of the fathers of the women students who expect to teach are engaged in farming, mercantile business and skilled labor; 13% of the fathers of men students and 20% of the fathers of the women students who expect to teach are engaged as bankers, lawyers, physicians, engineers, and teachers. Over 53% of the fathers of women students and 41% of the fathers of men students going into vocations other than teaching are engaged in business, banking, or some profession. The teacher groups come largely from families engaged in farming or skilled labor. With the exception of the children of the professional group, who show a decided superiority in intelligence, the relation of the occupation of the parent and intelligence of children tends to discredit any striking psycholog-

ical difference between occupational group.

12. The median family income of all students reporting is \$3,277.78. In every division the data show that the income of the students' families who do not expect to teach is much larger than the students' families who do expect to teach. The results further show that in every case the income of families of the men who expect to teach is considerably smaller than is the income of the families of the women students who expect to teach. The reverse is true in every case of the men and women who do not expect to teach. Teachers as a rule come from families in moderate circumstances and the parents of men expecting to teach are on a lower economic level than are the families of women who are preparing to teach. Furthermore the data indicate that students in the teacher training institutions, as a group, come from homes of a lower economic level than students in the university and in the non-state institutions.

13. The median size of the family of the teacher groups is 4.76, whereas the median size of the family of non-teacher groups is 3.72. This is a most interesting fact, since our leading sociologists claim that a family of 3.8 children is the size necessary to replace itself. Students who expect to teach come from larger families than students who do not expect to teach. Students enrolled in teacher training institutions are recruited from larger families than those represented by the liberal arts colleges. Men students who expect to teach come from larger families than the women students who expect to teach.

14. The average age of the men students both of the teacher and non-teacher group is approximately 20 years;

the average age of the women students preparing to teach is 19 years 8 months; while the average age of the women of the non-teacher group is 19 years 2 months.

15. The results indicate that there is a tendency for the children of large families in both the teacher and non-teacher groups to be slightly inferior in intelligence and, conversely, for the children of small families in both groups to be of the more superior intelligence. The higher the mentality of the students in any of the classes the fewer the number of children in the homes from which these students come.

16. Another interesting point brought out was the fact that when the parents both have only a rural or elementary schooling the average size of the family is 4.46; when both parents have a high school education the number of children is 3.13; when both have a college education the number of children is 2.99.

The data further show that when the father has had but a grade education and the mother a high school training the average size of the family is 3.74, but when the amount of schooling which the father and mother had is reversed, the size of the family is 4.46 or an increase in size of 20%. When the father has had a high school training and the mother a college education the average number of children to the family is 2.96. Reverse the amount of schooling which the father and mother have had and the average number of children to the family is 4.15, an increase of 37%. When the father has had a grade school and the mother a college education the number of children to the family is 3.72. Reverse the amount of training which the father and mother have and the average number of children to the family

is 4.15. This would seem to show that in both teaching and non-teaching groups educated mothers have more influence than do educated fathers in reducing the size of the family. A positive relation was found between social status of the family and intelligence quotients of the children.

#### THE TYPICAL YOUNG LADY ENTERING COLLEGE TO PREPARE FOR TEACHING

The typical young lady seeking to prepare for teaching in our colleges is slightly over nineteen years of age. She is native born, of native born parents or she comes of Nordic Stock and from a home in which both parents speak the English language. When she starts her preparation in college both of her parents are living and have had a grade or high school education. Her father is engaged in one of three prominent vocations—farming, merchandise business, or skilled labor and, in the case of one out of five, is engaged in some professional work and has an annual income of approximately \$3,000. She comes from a family of three or four children. She is equal or superior in intelligence, though not in social and economic status, to her college chum who does not intend to teach. As teaching is regarded as a highly respectable calling and more accessible with like competence than any other walk open to her she has decided to teach.

#### THE TYPICAL YOUNG MAN ENTERING COLLEGE TO PREPARE FOR TEACHING

The typical young man that enters upon the preparation for teaching in our colleges is approximately 20 years of age. He is native born of native born parents of Nordic descent. The English language is spoken by both parents. His parents have had a grade schooling but

rarely more than a high school education and they are not as well trained as parents of college students who are expecting to enter other vocations than teaching. His father is engaged in farming, business or skilled labor. He comes from a family in moderate circumstances having an annual income of slightly less than \$3,000. His family is on a lower economic and social level than the family of his college chum who plans on going into other vocations than teaching. He comes from a family of four or five children, and has average intelligence. He feels the pressure, both real and anticipated, to earn his own way. As the transfer from the school room as a student to it as a teacher is but a step he decides to teach. His economic conditions are such that he cannot afford to postpone a moderate income even though it comes at a sacrifice of a later larger gain.

While this study covers but one state, yet it is from a representative North Central state and probably reflects a rather characteristic situation.

#### **B. Present Practices with Reference to Student Participation in Teaching**

A second condition about which this committee was naturally interested was the prevailing conditions and procedure with reference to student participation in appropriate phases of teaching in North central colleges and universities. The practice of teaching by prospective teachers is supposed to have something to do with the professional training of those teachers. How valuable the result is depends upon conditions governing practice teaching. In order to make a start in the direction of determining how important this practice is in the

training of candidates, a study of the present status of practice teaching was undertaken. We are not passing judgment upon the merits of the case. We are about to embark on a voyage of discovery in an almost uncharted sea of student-teacher participation in teaching and before we get out of sight of land we are going to get our bearings. We were very fortunate in being able to interest in this study a graduate student from the college of education of the University of Iowa. He prepared what this committee considers to be a first class questionnaire and received offers of co-operation from one hundred and eighty-four colleges and universities in this territory. This study and the tables and charts which have been prepared form part of the report of this committee which we recommend be printed in extended form in the North Central Quarterly. Summarized, the study brings out the following facts and conditions:

(The study prepared by Mr. George S. Colebank of the Iowa State University, Iowa City, Iowa, is printed in full in this issue of the Quarterly. It will be found on pages 376 to 431.—The Editor.)

1. 159 institutions provide practice teaching on secondary level. Of 105 North Central colleges, 47 own and control their own training high school, 75 use public schools and 17 use both. The tendency is for student teaching in North Central colleges to be done in public high schools. Colleges would prefer to own their own, however.

2. About an equal number of these schools are junior high schools, senior high schools, four year high schools and six year high schools.

3. The tendency is for the regular high school teacher to supervise and di-

rect student teaching. Supervisors, heads of departments of education, high school principals, various members of the department of education and members of the academic department in the college are listed as others responsible for supervision of student teachers in some schools. Most colleges have a director of student teachers who is a member of the staff of the college of education.

4. In college or university controlled training high schools, about one-third of the teachers have master's degrees—the other two-thirds A. B.'s.

5. Student teachers are largely seniors and are usually selected by the head of the department or school of education working jointly with the head of the college department representing the subject taught and the principal of the training school.

6. Familiarity with subject to be taught, moral status, scholastic rank and physical status in the order named are the predominating factors considered in the selection of student teachers.

7. An average requirement of approximately 12 hours of education is asked of students before they are assigned to practice teaching. An average of a little over 16 hours is the amount actually earned by students before beginning practice teaching. The range, however, is from 2 hours to 47 hours.

8. A range of credit for practice teaching from 2 hours to 10 hours is found to exist. Three, four or five hours in order named is the credit allowance in the largest number of schools. Ten institutions, however, allow ten hours credit, while another ten allow  $2\frac{1}{2}$  hours or less.

9. In *observing teaching* the activities regarded as most important by the largest

number of schools as determined by the amount of emphasis placed upon them by the colleges are in order named:

1. Studying the teacher—personality, methods and discipline.

2. Studying assignment of lessons.

3. Studying pupils in class.

Other schools rank these activities as low as ninth or tenth. Eight other activities are listed by 23 schools as the most important activity in observing instruction. Library management, seating pupils and heating and ventilating are typical of other activities regarded as most important by some schools.

10. Most schools agree that the most important activity of the *student teacher* as judged by the amount of time devoted to it, is class teaching. A second important activity is lesson preparation; another, individual or group conferences with supervisors. Supervising of study as an important activity gets but a light scattering vote.

11. Three student teachers out of four do practice teaching in only one subject. The other one usually has experience in two subjects, rarely in three. Over one half of the schools reporting plan for practice teaching in but one subject. Relatively few student teachers get experience through teaching groups sectioned according to ability.

12. In some training schools the student teacher teaches 100% of the time devoted to instruction. In others she teaches but 10% of the time. The median is 50.8% of the time.

13. The amount of practice teaching required of each student teacher varies from 1,800 minutes (20 ninety-minute periods) to 4,200 minutes (60 seventy-minute periods). The median for the average in 45 minute classes is 54 periods



(2,430 minutes); in 50 minute classes, 409 periods (2,208 minutes); in 55 minute classes, 90.8 periods (4,990 minutes). The standard requirement fixed by the Carnegie Foundation is 90 periods of 45 minutes (4,050 minutes).

14. Finally, medians and medians for the average do not begin to tell the story which the wide ranges of practice shows. In practically every item dissimilarity and not similarity of practice is shown to be the rule.

### C. Hours of Education Allowed for the A. B. and B. S. Degrees

Time was in North Central Association history when the whole effort of the organization in the field of professional training was to assure itself that prospective teachers were given ample training in education. This was to off-set the theory then generally in vogue that anyone who had a knowledge of subject-matter in any field was capable of teaching it and to amplify the idea that professional training consisted in knowing not only subject-matter but in knowing something about the psychology and technique of education. To this end the North Central Association encouraged all prospective teachers to register in the school of Education and set up a requirement that North Central Association teachers must present at first eleven and then not less than fifteen hours from the school of education. So positive was this effort that within recent years we have begun to find some candidates for teacher training who seem to have had more hours in the school of Education than any place else. Then the question was naturally raised as to whether their general training was broad enough to give them the background which is considered necessary for successful class room teaching.

In order to determine what the practice is in North Central schools and colleges with reference to the number of hours which a student may offer from the school of Education toward the undergraduate degree, this committee instituted an investigation into the minimum and maximum number of hours in education allowed for the under-graduate degree in North Central colleges and universities. We are indebted to the college of education of the University of Nebraska for this study. For purposes of this report at this time we need but emphasize the chief points brought out in the findings of that study:

1. Questionnaires were sent to 82 North Central colleges and universities. Replies were received from 80.

2. Forty-nine of the 80 definitely limit the number of hours credit allowed toward an A. B. degree in Education. The range is from 15 to 74 semester hours. The results show there is no agreement nor clear conception in the minds of educators as to the desirable numbers of hours of professional work for a student's first degree.

3. The median number of hours allowed in North Central colleges is 30; the upper quartile has a range from 40 to 74 hours; the lower quartile 15 hours.

4. Of the remaining 31 institutions 17 indicate that there is no limit, leaving the student to select as many as he desires. The replies of the other sixteen schools were too indefinite for interpretation or they do not offer the A. B. degree.

5. In over half of the schools replying to the questionnaires students may take work in Education amounting to from 25% to 50% of the work toward the A. B. degree; in some the number

of hours in Education is unlimited. The wide variation and the great number of hours credit in professional courses allowed toward the bachelor's degree seem to show that a great many schools emphasize Education to the neglect of content courses.

6. The conditions for the B. S. degree are approximately the same. The median number of hours in Education allowed toward the degree is 30. Twenty-nine schools, however, have no limit on the hours in Education toward the B. S. degree.

7. The minimum number of hours of Education *required* in institutions giving the A. B. in Education varies from 10 to 45. The median number of hours was found to be 24, which is 9 hours more than the requirement of the North Central Association for Colleges and Secondary Schools. For the B. S. degree there is a range of from 14 to 50, with a median and mode of 24. In the state universities belonging to the North Central Association the median number of hours required for the first degree is 20 and the mode is 20 hours. There is no agreement nor clear conception as to the exact number of hours of professional work necessary or desirable for a student taking the first degree.

#### D. Differences Between Graduate and Under-Graduate Courses in Education\*

Along with the confusion which is apparent in the great variety of practice with reference to the number of hours of Education counted toward the undergrad-

uate degree is an equal chaotic condition with respect to the differentiation between graduate and under-graduate courses.

A glance at the current literature will enable the most casual observer to ascertain that there is no clear conception in the minds of educators in charge of graduate schools as to what distinction there is or should be between graduate and undergraduate courses. Are graduate courses to consist entirely of research, intensive mastery accompanied by independent investigation, or are they to become essentially courses of continued education and wide learning? What is the general character of this graduate work? What are the prerequisites laid down in the printed literature? Are they adhered to in practice in the respective institutions? Is there a definite graduate student body and a definite graduate faculty? What are the requirements and privileges set up by various graduate schools? Is there an overlapping in the graduate and undergraduate courses now given? These and many similar questions are to be earnestly considered in this study.

#### METHOD OF PROCEDURE

A survey questionnaire was sent to 82 North Central Colleges and Universities seeking information in regard to the prerequisites, standards, and nature of graduate courses offered. Replies received from 80 institutions, were classified and compared with those given in catalogs. The published write-ups of undergraduate and graduate courses were classified and studied for purposes of overlapping and comparison with published standards and requirements and those given in the questionnaires. Current literature and scientific studies on graduate work were examined.

\*From Hagey, J. C., Differences between graduate and undergraduate courses in education. Unpublished thesis, University of Nebraska, Teachers College, 1928.

(As this study is still in progress we can only give results shown by data submitted to date.)

1. An analysis of the current literature, studies, graduate catalogues, and a questionnaire sent out along this line reveals that there is no clear conception in the minds of educators as to what distinction there should be between graduate and undergraduate courses.

2. The nature of the graduate work now given in North Central Colleges was reported by 29 institutions as being a compromise between continued education and intensive mastery accompanied by research; by 17 colleges and universities as being research and training in methods of research; by 10 institutions as being in the nature of wide learning and intensive mastery of subject matter. One is surprised to find even this much agreement as to the type and nature of graduate work in the various colleges, or even within the same college, when he realizes the many sources from which graduate courses spring. Eight report that the Dean of the Graduate College determines which courses carry graduate credit. Twenty-three colleges and universities report that such courses are determined by graduate councils, committees on advanced degrees, committees on graduate study and committees of the graduate faculty. Twenty-four institutions report that the chairman of departments or the professors of the departments determine which courses shall carry graduate credit. The graduate faculty takes action on all courses in two colleges, and in six colleges the courses which carry graduate credit are determined jointly by two or more of the official bodies named above.

3. Of the forty colleges reporting that graduate courses were open to under-

graduate students, sixteen reported they were open to seniors only, and twenty-four stated that they permitted both juniors and seniors to enroll in graduate courses. Twenty-five stated that teaching experience was not a prerequisite to any graduate work; fourteen report that it was a prerequisite to some courses; only one college reports it as a prerequisite to all courses.

4. When work for graduate credit is taken in classes composed of graduate and undergraduate students the general practice is to require a higher grade of work. This is done by requiring higher grades, by special work, or by both. There are a few institutions that consider both groups on the same basis and expect the same level of responses, regardless of the graduate or undergraduate status of the student.

5. While there is no clear conception as to the difference between graduate and undergraduate work there is a strong feeling that some distinction should be made, and accordingly, there is a decided tendency against allowing undergraduate courses taken after graduation to be used to release credit hours received in graduate courses taken by the student as an undergraduate.

Thirty-seven colleges and universities out of forty-two replying to this question, were emphatically opposed to such juggling of credits, but in the five institutions where this was allowed the graduate and undergraduate courses appeared to be on the same level, and, there was no rule or limit as to the number of hours which could be released.

6. Graduate students are limited as to the number of hours credit they may take during one semester. The range is from 12 to 20 semester hours. The common practice during summer sessions is

to allow one hour for each week of attendance. Only six institutions reported that they did not place a limit upon the load carried by graduate students.

7. There is a decided tendency against allowing any graduate credit for courses taken by correspondence.

Even in the six schools reporting that graduate credit is so allowed there is a definite limit of from 4 to 12 hours. Forty-four colleges and universities reported that they were strongly opposed to such practice, as lowering the standards of graduate work. Furthermore, the general practice is to refuse graduate credit for courses taken by extension. Only fourteen colleges out of fifty colleges and universities replying to this question allow such credit, and in these institutions the number of hours is limited to 8 or 10.

8. It is a common practice in the colleges of the North Central Association to allow graduate credit for graduate courses taken in other institutions. Even in the case of the Masters degree, forty institutions find it satisfactory to give some credit, and the range of credit allowed is from 0 to 20 hours. While in fourteen schools graduate credit is not allowed toward the Master's degree for courses taken in other institutions, such credit is allowed, within limits, for the same courses when applied toward the Ph. D. or other more advanced degrees.

9. The practices and requirements, which apply to graduate courses during the regular school year, are adhered to in all graduate work given during the summer sessions.

In general, higher institutions do not discriminate accurately between graduate and undergraduate courses. The graduate courses given in many colleges require

little if any prerequisites, techniques, or methods. As a matter of fact the content in many of these courses overlaps the subject matter of courses given on the undergraduate level. Perhaps a sharp distinction cannot always be drawn between graduate and undergraduate work or it is even conceivable that graduate courses should sometimes be in the nature of transition courses, that is, they should have a combination of the elements of acquisition of knowledge and independent investigation but certainly the elementary stages of subject matter should never be placed on the graduate level. There are many contradictions of practices among the colleges and universities of the North Central Association and even among the different departments within the same colleges and universities. There are no standards agreed upon by higher institutions with respect to the differentiation of graduate and undergraduate courses. From the questionnaire data one is convinced, however, that there is a feeling among the various graduate institutions that somehow these colleges and universities should take concerted action to establish some feasible standards for determining at least in a general way the graduate rank of subjects. These principles must necessarily be general enough so that they can accommodate themselves to the actual conditions as they now exist and at the same time establish procedures leading toward more ideal standards.

To make clear what we mean by feasible working standards for differentiating graduate and undergraduate work your committee submits the following suggestions:

1. The elementary stages of all subjects within the student's field of choice as well as along general lines are not of



graduate rank. Subjects that require no prerequisite knowledge, methods or techniques are not, therefore, of graduate calibre.

2. Persistence and continuity of study are essential to intensive mastery; that is, if sufficient amounts of prerequisite work shall be taken to make possible a basis for original investigation or satisfactory results in wide learning and continued education.

3. Students who present themselves for graduate work and who are notably deficient in the fundamental knowledge, methods and techniques necessary to intensive mastery and independent investigation in the particular field of their choice should be required to complete the necessary courses to prepare for such advanced work without credit. We realize that the preparation of college students is often limited along these lines. Despite the actual conditions the matter cannot be decided off hand in favor of graduate credit for such courses, as other matters intervene. The mastery of the prerequisite tools and knowledge should be required as entrance requirements for graduate study in order that graduate courses may emphasize intensive mastery, independent investigation, scholarship and research or at least continued education on an advanced level.

These statements are properly phrased in broad and general terms. Their meaning and implication can easily be made specific. Some progress can be made each year without injustice to the students now enrolled in graduate colleges and with benefit to graduate work if we but agree upon the direction in which to go.

In the training of students for teaching, the legal requirements set up by various state agencies must be taken into con-

sideration. A study of legal qualifications of secondary school teachers in the United States is therefore in point.

#### E. The North Central Association and Legal Requirements for Certification in its Territory

The North Central Association is an extra-legal body. Membership in it is voluntary and may be assumed or cast off at will by any members of the organization as an extra-legal organization, it has the privilege of setting up standards in requirements for the training of teachers in its institutions over and above those contained in the law of any of the states in which its members are located. It is not bound to accept as teachers in its schools those who fulfill the minimum legal requirements for certification in the various states comprising North Central territory. However, what the legal requirements are in each of these states has an effect upon what the requirements in the North Central Association are or may become. While we have the power and are free to set up whatever requirements we will over and above the legal minimums, yet in actual practice public opinion prevents us from being able to go far beyond the best state standards.

Therefore, as an association, we are interested in the legal requirements in North Central states. In addition to that we are interested in how these requirements in North Central states compare with those in non-North Central states. We are interested to know what range and variety exists between the minimum and maximum legal requirements for teaching in a high school in each of the given states.

With that end in view the committee has undertaken to determine what the

## A Table of Comparative Trends in High School Teachers Certification

Criteria for Comparison	N. C. A. States Lowest	N. C. A. States Highest	Non N. C. A. States Lowest	Non N. C. A. States Highest
Number of states requiring				
1. Experience .....	1	15	5	23
2. Specialization of academic subject matter.....	8	4	7	5
3. Specific educational courses.....	8	10	4	12
4. An educational course of some kind.....	13	16	12	17
5. Practice teaching .....	5	5	1	3
6. Special methods .....	4	3	3	4
7. Educational psychology .....	4	7	1	3
8. Two years of college.....	16	0	10	1
9. Three years of college .....	1	0	4	0
10. A four year college course.....	2	19	9	22
11. One year or more of graduate work.....	0	1	....	4
12. No college work, only exam.....	0	0	2	0
13. Six hours of education courses or less.....	3	2	8	6
14. Twelve hours of education or more.....	12	16	4	12

Read table thus: Number of states requiring experience in N. C. A. states for lowest certificate is one, and highest 15, in non-N. C. A. states for lowest certificate is 5 and highest 23.

minimum and maximum legal requirements are for teaching in secondary schools in each of the states of the Union. The material was furnished by the state departments of each state and the study is based upon their reports\*

Another study of high school teacher certification in the United States is of interest at this time. Dr. Frank L. Wright\*\*, of Washington University, shows that "of the 329 certificates valid for teaching in the high school, issued by the 48 states, only 57 are reserved for teaching in the high school only. In a few states there seems to have been an attempt to classify certificates, but in a majority of the states to assign different names for the different certificates is all that has been attempted. Seventeen states issue 47 certificates for administra-

tion or supervision, five of which states require one year of graduate work for the highest type of administrator; and twenty-one states issue a total of 38 certificates for junior high schools or high schools of less than four years, only two of which states require as much as four years. All but five of the states grant certificates for teaching the special subjects, the academic and professional requirement being much less for these certificates than for certificates to teach the regular academic work. In fact in twenty-one of the forty-three states which issue such certificates, no mention of professional requirements is made. In 25 states there is at least one certificate valid for teaching in the high school granted on examination; 66 of the 329 certificates are issued on examination; there are 14 states in which a life certificate is granted on examination, while there are 23 states in which all certificates for teaching in the high school are issued on credentials.

"There is a tendency to increase schol-

\*Table from Bernstraugh, I. A. Maximum and Minimum Legal Requirements for teaching in the secondary schools in the various states of the Union. Unpublished thesis, University of Nebraska, Teachers College.

\*\*Dr. F. L. Wright, *The Certification of Teachers in the Secondary Schools of the United States*.

arship and professional requirements for teaching academic subjects in the high school. In thirteen states four years and in twenty others at least two years of training are required. The median number of hours of education required in the forty-eight states is a little less than 16 hours for the highest certificates granted for teaching in the high school, with Observation and Practice Teaching, History of Education, Psychology, (including general), Principles (Philosophy, Science) of Education, Principles of Teaching, Administration and Supervision and Educational Psychology, in the order named, being mentioned most frequently by the states.

"Experience plays much too large a part in certification in some states and much too small a part in other states in the case of certain certificates. Seven states grant life diplomas for teaching in the high school to persons without experience. The median number of years of teaching experience required for the life certificate in the 43 states which grant life certificates, is a little less than four. Most states are requiring that teachers show professional growth from year to year in order that certificates may be renewed, and requirements for certification are being gradually increased and the lower grade certificates discontinued."

This gives us in a nutshell the present practice in certification of secondary teachers in the 48 states. The fact that "in 25 states there is at least one certificate valid for teaching in the high school granted on examination" and that "in 14 states life certificates are granted on examination" is worthy of reiteration by way of illustrating that legal quali-

fications as yet set very low standards in many states.

Recent tendencies in legal qualifications may be shown by quoting the following: "Modern movements in certification are toward the granting of state certificates on credentials from educational institutions approved by the state; toward certification for the particular work for which the candidate is qualified; toward specific denomination of requirements and the naming on the certificate of subjects which the one certified is prepared to teach; toward higher qualifications for all teachers and all certificates; and toward a minimum wage schedule and a scale for rating the abilities of teachers."\*

If these tendencies in legislation should become actualities in all states, the present problems in professional training of teachers would be solved as nearly as they can be by legal enactment. On the other hand one conversant with conditions in many states knows that while progress will be made it will be consummated too slowly to result in the complete, immediate and uniform development of proper certification standards in all states. Thus it is evident that legal requirements set but a none too high minimum. By way of summary of the legal requirements for certification of secondary school teachers this committee offers the following:

1. The elements which appear most frequently in the legal certification requirements in both North Central Association states and non-North Central Association states are as follows:

1. Some college training, including

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\*Dr. F. L. Wright, *The Certification of Teachers in the Secondary Schools of the United States*.

study of subjects which the candidate expects to teach—scholarship.

a. Specific and general courses in education.

b. A period of teaching experience.

c. Practice teaching.

2. Under the poorest state certification laws a board of education may employ as a high school teacher to teach academic subjects, an individual who having no experience, no college training, no professional training or practice in teaching, has by examination secured a certificate issued by some state, county or city board of education.

3. Under the best state certification laws a board of education must employ to teach academic subjects in high school a teacher who, though having no experience, has had a year of graduate work above four years of college work, has had at least twelve hours of Education, has had practice in teaching and specialized courses in content and method and this teacher must be assigned to teach the subject or subjects in which she has had special training for teaching.

4. While there is a tendency towards specialization of certification in North Central Association states, the vicious practice of issuing blanket type certificates permitting candidates to teach in any subject still prevails in many states. The tendency toward certification for specific phases and subjects is more prevalent in non-North Central Association states.

5. Since legal qualifications establish but the lowest standard which a state is willing to allow one to possess and practice the profession of teaching such qualifications can never be depended upon to develop the highest ideals within the profession. As in medicine and law

it behooves the teaching profession to set up for itself professional standards far in advance of those sanctioned by law.

Once the standards are set and legal qualifications met the question of proper placement of prospective teachers is of vital importance. In this process the college placement bureau plays an important part and therefore it next demands our consideration.

#### F. The College Placement Bureau and the Candidate

With these facts in mind, this committee has become interested in answers to the following questions:

To what extent are teacher training institutions now seeking conscientiously to further develop in the candidates those worthwhile intellectual abilities, character qualities, and elements of a sound physique so essential to successful teaching?

To what extent are teacher training institutions after having made this effort to develop candidates into well rounded prospects, seeking to make other provision for those students who manifestly are unable to meet certain standards in these respects?

What efforts are teacher training institutions making through their placement bureaus to make sure that some recognition is given to very promising candidates which will make it more likely that they will be placed in desirable positions rather than the unpromising candidates who merely meet the minimum requirements for certification?

What efforts are teacher training institutions making through their placement bureaus to study communities in which they are called upon to locate



candidates in an endeavor to determine what special requirements are placed upon teachers in certain communities, to the end that the bureau will be able to recommend candidates for that community more wisely than otherwise would be the case?

In order to gather material upon which some tentative conclusion could be reached in this matter, the committee was responsible for a questionnaire sent to all college placement bureaus in the North Central Association. The following study resulted:

### How Do Placement Bureaus Classify Candidates for Recommendation

For centuries instructors in colleges and universities have regarded and assumed as a part of their responsibility the placement of students in whom they have the most interest. While this old system of individual placement had some virtues it likewise had many shortcomings.

So long as the instructor had sufficient contact to know just what was needed, to know the peculiar characteristics of the communities to be served as well as the qualifications and traits of the students he was recommending, there was satisfaction to all concerned. As society became more developed and colleges and universities took on larger proportions, a great many more misfits resulted and, therefore, the level of satisfaction lowered. Perhaps this was due to the fact that all professors were not equally sagacious in placing the students or in sensing school and community needs. To require each and every instructor to make the necessary contacts with respect to conserving the good qualities of the old system is next to impossible. Where the population increases by leaps and bounds

as has been the case in the United States, even if such procedure were possible it would mean much duplication of effort and waste of time and money.

In time the respective colleges and universities came to realize the student bodies had grown far too large to allow student placement to remain on such an informal and unorganized basis.

As a result during the last quarter of a century placement bureaus in colleges and universities have come into existence in great numbers. In these institutions the full significance of this type of service has not been recognized. As a result these bureaus have been hampered in many ways and the lack of funds is not the least. There are many institutions which still feel that an out-lay of a few thousand dollars is an outrageous extravagance. They cannot see that service so rendered, even if it is furnished to the student free, is a service to the state.

These institutions loudly proclaim they train for leadership and yet they fall short of their full duty in not recognizing how important it is that each leader has an opportunity to secure a position where he can exercise to the best interests of all that leadership for which he was trained. This task of understanding and insight into the importance of the service to be rendered by the placement bureau has allowed it to be developed in a haphazard fashion. Like Topsy it "jes growed."

When we take into consideration a teacher turn-over of from 25 to 50% annually, we cannot help but realize the great importance of safeguarding the type of product that is to come into the teaching profession.

There is no one factor which will affect the quality of instruction as greatly

and as rapidly as a careful selection of candidates who are to be trained and placed into high school positions. What then is being done to properly classify the list of candidates who are to become our future high school teachers? The following list of responses will give some insight into the classifying and recommending of candidates for positions. Of the 98 institutions applied to for responses 73 replied. It is safe to assume that those bureaus failing to respond are not organized any better, if as well as those cooperating in this study. Even if such were the case the results and purposes for interpretation would not be materially changed as approximately 75% of the institutions made replies. These institutions rank high in educational matters and are not apt to be far behind in the ranking with respect to the placement service.

### Classifying and Listing Candidates for Recommendation

1. Who are eligible to receive the service of your bureau?

- (a) Regularly enrolled students in your institution -----(73)
- (b) Former students of your college or university -----(72)
- (c) Relatives of self-supporting Stanford students who live in this vicinity -----(1)
- (d) Students who have been certified elsewhere but carrying courses with us -----(1)
- (e) Members of the faculty----(1)
- (f) Students from other colleges when our students are not available--(1)

2. Do you ever refuse to accept the registration of candidates seeking the service of your bureau? Yes. (26) No. (32) (Underline) If so, for what reasons?

- (a) Physical defects -----(12)
  - (b) Poor health -----(13)
  - (c) Failure in former positions (17)
  - (d) Moral delinquency -----(30)
  - (e) Low scholastic record ----( 4)
  - (f) Graduates of other institutions -----( 2)
  - (g) Unfit personality -----( 1)
  - (h) Failure to grow -----( 1)
  - (i) Poor prospect -----( 1)
3. Are all registrants placed on the active list? Yes. (36) No----- (28)
4. Are investigations made by your bureau to determine if the candidate has high character qualities before he or she is placed upon the active list? Yes. (56) No. -----(10)
5. Do you divide registered candidates into classified lists, such as: No. (23)
- (a) Preferential or highly recommended by bureau -----(32)
  - (b) Endorsed, but not especially recommended by bureau -----(28)
  - (c) Available without endorsement of bureau -----(23)
  - (d) According to position desired—as teaching or secretarial work ----( 2)
  - (e) Anticipated plan—Rating on index cards -----( 1)
6. What criteria or standards do you use in determining these lists?
- (a) Individual rating by training school supervisors -----(57)
  - (b) Rating by director of bureau, based upon visitation -----(37)
  - (c) Rating by bureau, based upon credentials filed -----(50)
  - (d) Composite score, derived from combined judgments of those directing and supervising practice teaching, based upon teaching elements -----(29)
  - (e) Recommendations of instructors under whom college courses have been taken -----(39)

- (1) Academic -----(39)
- (2) Professional -----(38)
- (f) Recommendations of superintendents and school board members with whom previous positions were held (56)
- (g) Follow-up letters, giving success or failure in position to which teacher was recommended by bureau -----(45)
- (h) Classified lists of registrants (i. e., good, fair, poor) by heads of the respective academic and professional departments in which student is taking work -----(20)
- (i) Rating card system in training school -----(18)
- (j) Rating sheets sent out to instructors, superintendents, and school board members -----(26)
- (k) Other factors:
  - (1) Rating of Heads of dormitories as to neatness, reliability, cooperation, etc. -----( 2)
  - (2) Information from Dean of Women, etc. -----( 3)
  - (3) With experienced teachers ability to render community service---( 1)
  - (4) Complete record (grades, mental tests, health, etc.)----- ( 1)
  - (5) Personal interviews -----( 1)
  - (6) Psychological examinations ( 1)
- 7. Are these classified or selected lists available to prospective employers? Yes. (32) No. (14)

- (a). Typewritten lists given out upon request for inspection -----(18)
- (b) Verbal or oral lists given out by director of bureau in conference with school authorities -----(30)

There can be no question but that there is a universal practice of allowing former students as well as regularly enrolled students to receive the service of the placement bureau of their respective institutions. It would seem from the responses made that colleges and uni-

versities as a whole feel that in rendering service to former students and regularly enrolled students their obligations are fully discharged. While organized institutional effort is being universally made to help the students of the respective institutions, little consideration has been given to the service due society, the state or the community. If we are to raise the level of instruction in the North Central Association high schools, careful consideration must be given to the positions to be filled as well as to the candidates who are to fill these positions.

It is not merely a question of finding a position for a former or regularly enrolled student but a question of finding for this position the fittest candidate available. Institutional and state boundaries must disappear in the placing of teachers and educational leaders. Especially is this true when we realize the increasing need for specialists in all educational endeavor as well as the peculiar subject combinations high school teachers are often called upon to teach. The institution, therefore, that serves only its former and regularly enrolled students cannot be the most helpful or operate upon the highest professional plane. Nothing less than the ideal of placing the right man in the right place regardless to where he was trained or where he is going to school can be accepted. We cannot expect our teachers to be professional minded when they are saturated and dominated by an atmosphere of institutional politics and prejudices. The placement services of these colleges and universities must look to the advancement and improvement of the high schools as well as to the interest of the candidate and training institutions. Only by sharing in the larger

ends of education and placing in the positions candidates who can render the most effective service can the placement bureau operate upon a high professional plane. This means that these agencies must not only be equipped to find accurately the qualifications of the available teachers but more important than this is the machinery that will enable them to discover accurately and efficiently the needs of the children and the schools in the respective communities which are to be served. For in the end what is best for the schools of the respective communities turns out to be the best for the candidates. It is gratifying to note that at least a few institutions have gone part way in this direction by allowing the students of other institutions to receive the services of their bureaus when their own students are not available. Even this is by no means universal for a number of institutions have a policy which is antagonistic to this point of view. It is the policy of a large majority of the bureaus not only to register all seniors and students seeking positions, but to place these registrants upon the active placement list. Since many students register only in order that complete information concerning them may be filed in one convenient place for a future reference, the student is, of course, asked to designate his desires of having his credentials placed on the active or inactive list. The candidate's choice seems to be the main reason for placing his credentials on the active or inactive list. A few colleges have gone further and make a positive investigation to determine the fitness of a candidate. A mere request of the candidate, however, in most colleges and universities is sufficient to have his credentials placed among all those competing for positions regardless

of his fitness for teaching. When only 12 institutions out of 73 responding take physical defects into consideration as a factor for refusing services of the bureau; when only 13 out of 98 agencies think that poor health is a cause for refusing to aid these people into high school positions, or when a majority of institutions pay no attention to these factors at all, one begins to believe that there are no real severe bodily standards for teaching. There is no bias against the long line of blemishes and imperfections. Since these are disregarded in the teachers of our children, is it a wonder that among our people defective functioning and incomplete bodily equipment no longer debars anyone from regarding himself or herself or by being regarded by others as normal and even desirable. To say that a person with physical defects or one in poor health may be able to fill some position is a different thing from disregarding all these factors and throwing candidates on the market to compete for a majority of the positions. It is no excuse to say that the employer should take the risk in filling his vacancies. It is a well known fact that if superintendents and principals are to have any confidence in our placement bureaus these agencies must take the aggressive and safeguard the interests of the schools and children to be taught as well as the interests of the candidates who are to be placed. When we realize that our thoughts, our ideals, our life values take form and develop in the environment in which we find ourselves, may there not be a danger that our young will come to regard as normal and even desirable this defective functioning and incomplete bodily equipment. Especially is this true if we condone and constantly permit these things to exist



in our teachers. There are a few colleges and universities, however, who are beginning to consider these things and refuse to give the services of their placement bureaus to those teachers who do not have good health and high moral standards as well as a strong personality.

It will be noted that quite a number of the colleges and universities refuse the services of the respective bureau to the candidates who have failed in a former position. A fixed rule on this point may at times work an injustice upon the placing of candidates. One bureau states, "Oftentimes those who have been failures in secondary school teaching positions make notable successes in college and university work and vice versa." A careful check of the other factors will determine whether the candidate is entitled to further service. A single glance at the responses will suffice to show that few institutions have a systematic plan of classifying the prospective candidates. From the great variety of ways, means, and standards applied, one is led to believe that at least the problem of trying to evaluate and classify candidates is beginning to be sensed by the institutions. The lack of uniformity and systematic procedure, however, simply goes to show how little scientific methods have been applied to this phase of the work. Furthermore, little or nothing is being done to indicate that the needs of the school and community are entering into any of the schemes of classifying prospective teachers. Here indeed is a fruitful field for research. Why not a profile for the community as well as for the individual who is to serve in the community? At least the characteristics necessary to meet the demands of the respective communities to be served could in this way be considered in bring-

ing the right man to the right place.

The placement agencies are, therefore an important factor in the development and improvement of the type and quality of instruction in the high schools of the land. They will always have much to do with the selection of the kind and type of teachers. These bureaus, therefore, not only stand in a potentially helpful relation to teacher training institutions but they help to guard the gateway of the profession of teaching. They are the means of bringing about a rapid change for the better or for the worse depending upon the policies and standards under which they operate. We can, therefore, get the quickest and best results in improving the quality of instruction in high schools by carefully selecting those who enter the profession.

In conclusion it may be said that these placement bureaus can be of the greatest service to society and to prospective teachers:

1. When they set up their ideals, objectives and standards with a view of sharing in the larger ends of education.
2. When they organize and cooperate on a basis so as to find for each position not merely the suitable student but the fittest candidate possible regardless of where he was trained or where he is now going to school.
3. When they operate on a high professional plane and subordinate the interests of individuals to the interests of the children in the respective communities to be served.
4. When they develop an organized plan for institutional cooperation in the placement of teachers and eliminate institutional prejudices and jealousies.
5. When they are willing to refuse the services to registrants who possess

traits which will not be conducive to the best interests of the schools to be served.

6. When they scientifically work out a technique of finding the peculiar characteristics of the respective communities and schools in which candidates are to be placed.

7. When the position to be filled and the communities to be served receive as much if not more consideration by the bureau than the prospective teachers enrolled. In the long run what is best for the children of the community to be served is the best for the future teachers of our high schools.

It is evident from the foregoing study that the placement bureau is not living up to its full possibilities as a professional service to candidates seeking positions, nor to communities seeking candidates. Far too often the practice of placement bureaus is to act merely as a compiler of a few records on each candidate who receives a teaching certificate in any given year. Schools seeking candidates are given permission to look at a few photographs, note a brief personal history and read a few short characterizations of the students' work and then make their selection as they choose.

Our investigation shows that some placement bureaus make no effort to determine whether the institution thinks the candidate will make a good teacher or not. All it guarantees is that the candidate has fulfilled the minimum legal requirements. Furthermore our investigation shows that in some schools some investigation of the character of those who seek teaching positions is made in teacher training institutions through the placement bureau, but if the result of this investigation is unfavorable it is not made available to prospective employers of that individual. The candidate with a bad

record is made equally available by these bureaus along with those of good records.

Placement bureaus should begin interesting themselves in candidates when they first enter teacher training institutions. The placement bureau should be the organization ascertaining individual needs and should take the initiative in attempting to develop in these candidates to as great a degree as possible the qualities, abilities and capacities necessary to attain success in the teaching profession. It should be responsible for developing and maintaining a system of personnel records on these students equivalent to that now kept in some business institutions. The purpose of such a type of work should be to help students become more promising candidates than they otherwise might become. That is legitimate professional training.

As a result of such a careful system of records, the advice and counsel of placement bureau heads would be of more value to schools seeking candidates. In order to make this counsel of the most worth, the bureau should also undertake an additional service now rendered in a degree by many placement bureaus but not highly organized in any, namely a careful study of communities usually served by the institutions to determine special qualifications which each community insists upon in its teachers. This would enable the bureau to more wisely recommend candidates and therefore come nearer insuring professional success to the individual and freedom from the annoying consequence of failure to the community employing the teacher. In fine, the placement bureau can render a much bigger service than it now undertakes to do. It cannot operate on a "caveat emptor" basis.

In order to complete the picture it is now necessary to take a glance at some of the conditions under which the entering teacher works and the activities in which she must participate.

### G. The Work of the Beginning Teacher

What teachers are called upon to do after the second year of teaching they are able to learn to do through associations with other teachers and through training in service, but what they are called upon to do during the first year or two of service they will either be trained to do upon entrance or succeed in doing merely by chance.

Since in most school systems the chief responsibility for extra-curricular activities does not fall upon entering teachers except in fields where they have had very careful college preparation for these activities, it is apparent that the problem before the committee centers down upon class room duties of new teachers in the profession. Success or failure in the discharge of these class room responsibilities during the first year of service to a large degree determines success or failure, satisfaction or dissatisfaction for both teacher and community. Therefore this committee has become interested in some studies which show us something of the character of the work of an entering teacher in North Central schools. The committee recognizes that before tenable conclusions and recommendations can be drawn, more exhaustive studies must be made than this committee has been able or ever will be able to undertake. Some are now under way in the hands of well qualified research workers. The committee contends that a number of such studies will need to be made before anyone can begin to write an acceptable

curriculum for the professional training of secondary school teachers.

We offer the following brief summaries of studies which are already available in printed form as indicative of a type of which we need many more. For instance a study by a graduate student of the University of Nebraska\*, the purpose of which was to show the relation between subjects taught and the teachers' preparation in North Central schools in Nebraska, and which covered 402 high schools, points out certain conditions.

1. Teachers teach the following number of subjects:\*\*

One subject	-----	586 teachers
Two subjects	-----	791 teachers
Three subjects	-----	597 teachers
Four subjects	-----	188 teachers
Five subjects	-----	34 teachers
Six subjects	-----	2 teachers

2. That the median number of subjects taught varies from 3.36 in schools of less than five teachers to one subject in schools of over twenty teachers.

3. That over 70% of high school teachers in Nebraska are teaching two subjects and over 30% are teaching three.

4. That in schools of fewer than ten teachers (where 75% of Nebraska high school teachers teach) the average teacher teaches three subjects.

5. History teachers as a group are teaching history with 205 combinations, English teachers with 155 combinations and mathematics teachers are asked to teach mathematics in 177 combinations.

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\*Agnes Undeland, *Relation Between Subjects Taught and the Teachers' Preparation*, University of Nebraska Bulletin No. 1, 1926.

\*\*A subject here means simply a department, English, mathematics, etc. Conditions would show even worse if a finer classification were made.

6. The majority of Nebraska high school teachers have no equipment (less than 6 hours of college work) for fully one-half the work expected of them. There are no standard combinations of subjects for teaching.

7. That 2372 periods of instruction which constitutes one-fourth of all the high school instruction given in these schools are conducted by teachers with less than 8 college hours of preparation for teaching that subject.

8. That, since employment in large schools depends upon experience (in small schools) and since here a teacher must teach three subjects, teachers in Nebraska should be trained in college in three subject-matter fields.

9. That "blanket" certification of teachers in effect in Nebraska makes these conditions possible.

Furthermore, the conditions found in the North Central high schools of Nebraska with respect to the relation between subjects taught and the preparation of the teacher are typical of those found in other North Central states. Similar studies in Iowa, Minnesota and Ohio\* reveal clearly:

1. That there is little if any standardization of subject-combination especially in small North Central high schools in which over half of all North Central teachers teach.

2. That a large per cent of the teachers are called upon to teach two or more

subjects. Subject as used in this report means subjects in different departments. In the small high schools a combination of three subjects is the common practice.

3. That from 20 to 30 per cent of the periods of instruction given in North Central schools are taught by teachers who have an inadequate preparation.

4. Therefore, candidates for teaching positions should have in addition to the subject of specialization at least a minor in another subject usually taught in high school. Institutions located in territory where small high schools make up a majority of the high schools served may well urge their students to present a second minor in a subject usually taught in high schools.

The conditions which make it necessary for entering teachers to teach two or even three subjects will doubtless obtain as long as a majority of the North Central secondary schools are small schools, which will be a long time. This, then, is not a mere passing condition we may expect soon to outgrow, but is rather a condition of such durability as to rightfully be taken into account by teachers colleges in planning a program of professional training for students.

5. The respective subject-combinations to be urged upon the prospective teachers for the present should be those which occur most frequently in practice. The studies show that there is a marked tendency toward certain combinations in North Central high schools a few of which are as follows:

- (1). English—social studies—Latin.
- (2). Mathematics—science.
- (3). Science—mathematics.
- (4). Latin—English—mathematics.

\*Thos. Kirby, *Subject Combinations in High School Teachers' Programs*, University of Iowa Bulletin 136.

W. Hutson, *Training of High School Teachers in Minnesota*.

J. A. Baer, *Do High School Teachers Teach the Subjects for Which They are Trained?*



# Practice Teaching in the Colleges of the North Central Association

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## INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to determine the status and trend of student teaching in training institutions of the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges. The Committee on Professional Training of Secondary Teachers of the Association having desired that such a study be made, kindly consented to cooperate in collecting the data and in making suggestions for the completion of the undertaking. It seemed best to do it by the method of a questionnaire, notwithstanding its evident difficulties and some probabilities of error. The items of the questionnaire were classified under three distinct phases of student teaching; viz., arrangements for the administration of student teaching, organization of the student teaching group, and direction and supervision of student teaching.

To supplement and verify the data obtained through the questionnaire, studies were made of current bulletins of the colleges and universities, of their printed and mimeographed material used in student teaching and matter covered by a bibliography of wide scope on observation and student teaching.

Much care was exercised in the preparation of the items of the questionnaire in order that the fundamental and significant features of student teaching would be included in the inquiry. This pro-

cedure included considerable reading of descriptions of current practices of student teaching and a careful examination of questionnaires which had been used to gather data on similar studies. A tentative schedule of items was sent to a group of representative training institutions. A study of the replies to the tentative questionnaire was useful in obtaining the character of the fundamental data needed and in checking for misinterpretations of various items. Following this preliminary study, the final form of the questionnaire was completed and sent out to all colleges of the Association in the early part of January, 1928. The list of accredited institutions of higher education for 1926-27 as published in the North Central Association Quarterly, June, 1927, was used for mailing purposes.

The total number of institutions listed was 217. From this number, 159 colleges provide facilities for student teaching on the secondary level. Replies were received from 119 institutions early enough to include in the tabulation of the data as found in the tables of the study. However, it should be noted that the first 14 tables include data for 112 institutions. The remaining portion of the tabulated data includes data for a total of 119 colleges. A total of 128 institutions replied to the questionnaire, but 9 replies were received too late to be included in the study. The study, therefore, is based

upon about 70 per cent of the total number of teacher training departments of the colleges affiliated with the Association.

It seemed advisable to tabulate the data under three classifications of the colleges, as follows: State universities, non-state colleges and State teachers colleges. Such classification represents the three distinct types of colleges included in the study and the data tabulated accordingly may be useful for comparative purposes in showing certain trends. It should be noted that the use of the terms "colleges" and "institutions" in the following pages refer to all the types except where the classifications are differentiated.

In spite of care to eliminate possibilities of misinterpretation of items in the questionnaire, the results in some cases were of little or no value, and are not included in the tabulated data. On the other hand, most of the colleges answered the questionnaire with great care, and as a result the data are accurate. The report takes up the data chiefly in the order of the items as found in the questionnaire. The summaries in the tables are interpreted and discussed in the order of their presentation. Those phases of student teaching which seem to be most significant and most emphasized uniformly by the colleges are treated at more length. Where significant changes are noted in certain standardized student teaching activities as measured in comparison with results found in earlier studies, such modifications will be mentioned. In recent years, national educational organizations such as the American Association of Teachers Colleges and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching have set up definite standards for many of the activities for the improvement of student teachers. Comparison of the general trends of the training practices of the

North Central colleges are made with these national standards.

The Appendix of this study contains some of the less relevant tables, a copy of the questionnaire, and a list of the colleges included in the study.

## CHAPTER I

### Arrangements for the Administration of Student Teaching

Table I, the Character and Organization of Training Schools for Observation and Student Teaching, reveals the following facts: 47 colleges have training high schools owned and controlled exclusively by the colleges; 75 colleges have training high schools which are a part of a public school system; 17 colleges report that they have both types of schools for training purposes. The high school owned and controlled exclusively by the college is found to be more frequent in state teachers colleges than in the other two types of institutions. Non-state colleges provide facilities for student teaching chiefly in co-operating public high schools. The general tendency of all the colleges is for student teaching to be done in public high schools.

Due to the rapidly increasing enrollment in teacher training institutions in recent years, the problems of providing ample facilities for observation and student teaching has been a pressing one. What seems to be the most practical solution is some plan of co-operative agreement with the local public schools whereby they may be made available for training school purposes. Studies of this situation reveal that facilities for student teaching in training schools which have no co-operative arrangement with the public schools are in striking contrast to the facilities in training schools which have some form

Table I. Character and Organization of Training Schools for Observation and Practice Teaching

Organization of schools	Grades Included	Number of Schools Reporting	State Universities			State Teachers Colleges			Non-State Schools		
			Type 1	Type 2	Type 3	Type 1	Type 2	Type 3	Type 1	Type 2	Type 3
		105	16	19	7	22	13	7	9	43	3
Junior High .....	7-9	.....	6	8	5	8	6	5	2	15	1
Senior High .....	10-12	.....	6	5	4	7	4	3	1	12	1
Four-year High .....	9-12	.....	9	12	5	6	5	2	7	20	4
Junior-Senior .....	7-12	.....	6	5	3	11	6	2	2	18	1

\*Type 1: A high school owned and controlled exclusively by the university or college.

Type 2: A high school which is part of a city school system; a public high school.

Type 3: A combination of both types 1 and 2 i. e., where in the same locality both types of high schools are used to train student teachers.

Table II. Relation of the College or University to the City High School Used As Training School

	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non-State Schools	Totals
Number of colleges assisting in financing salaries of the regular teachers with whom student teachers work .....	13	9	19	41
Number of colleges having some control in the selection of these regular teachers.....	6	10	11	27
Number of colleges not assisting in financing salaries of regular teachers with whom student teachers work .....	8	10	28	46
Number of colleges having no control in the selection of regular teachers .....	13	8	34	55

of co-operative arrangement. The ratio of student teachers to pupils in colleges maintaining public school facilities for training, is, in most instances, much higher and hence more nearly approaches the standard fixed by national rating organizations. It is generally agreed by those who have given much study to the problems of teacher training that student teachers should have experience in both types of training schools. "Certainly no city or town should be the seat of a state normal school unless it is willing to turn over to the state institution either all of its local schools or a sufficient number to provide ample facilities for demonstration, practice teaching and experimental education. It will almost certainly profit

thereby both educationally and financially, and for the normal school the arrangement is indispensable."<sup>1</sup>

Table I shows the following number of organizations of training schools:

Junior High (7-9), 45; Senior High (10-12), 35; Four-year High (9-12), 59; Junior-Senior High (7-12), 48.

The old type of organization (9-12) predominates. The number of Junior-Senior high schools (7-12) is significant. Table II shows that about 50 per cent of the colleges assist in financing the salaries of teachers in a public high school used for training purposes. About 36 per cent of the colleges using a pub-

<sup>1</sup>Carnegie Foundation Bulletin, No. 14, p. 197.

lic high school have some control in the selection of the regular high school teachers. Of those replying, about 70 per cent express a preference for training schools of their own, attached to the college. The other 30 per cent prefer an outside training school. Many factors determine the type desired: (1) the number of student teachers, (2) the degree of control by the college, (3) facilities for training in the public high school, and (4) the function of the training school as desired by the college.

The following replies indicate some of the more common practices in financing the salaries of teachers in public high schools used for training laboratories:

"\$50 per student teacher per semester, one-half day, five days a week," "\$36 per practice student per term per critic teacher," "one-half the principal's salary," "\$100 per year," "\$25 per year per practice teacher with a maximum of four practice teachers," "all the salary over \$1000 or \$1400," "40 per cent of the teacher's salary," "from \$5 to \$20 per teacher depending on the supervising load carried," "fifty cents per student teaching period. Proportion varies according to the number of students assigned to the regular teacher," "Flat rate of \$15 per student teacher," "\$25 per month per semester for three student teachers, \$10.20 per month per semester for one or two student teachers." Ohio University pays the regular high school teacher from \$300 to \$500 a year in addition to the maximum salary paid by the Board of Education. Ohio State University, for the privilege of using the public high schools for training schools, permits all city teachers to take courses in the University free of charge. It is noted that about one-half of the colleges reporting assist in financing the salaries of the training

teacher in the public high school. Henderson<sup>2</sup> in a statistical study of the use of city school systems for student teaching found that extra pay for the regular teacher for the supervision of student teaching was not general. Out of 23 colleges which used the city schools for training purposes in which extra pay was granted, 4 schools reported that the Board of Education financed the extra pay. The colleges of the North Central Association, according to the findings of this study, show a much stronger tendency to grant extra pay to teachers in public high schools acting as training teachers. It would seem fair and desirable that such teachers should be allowed extra compensation for the added responsibility of supervising student teachers. The increased pay enables the Board of Education to employ more thoroughly trained and better qualified supervising teachers who will render more satisfactory service to the training school. Taken as a whole, the reports of the institutions which are using public school systems for training purposes reflect an optimistic attitude with regard to their administrative relationships with such schools. It is significant to note that 36 per cent of the colleges exercise some control in the selection of the regular teachers of the training public high school. From the character of special notations made in replying to this item it seems that by "selection" is meant "assisting in making choice" from the regularly employed teachers of those who are to act as critic teachers.

Out of the 81 replying to this particular question, 57 expressed their prefer-

<sup>2</sup>Henderson, Joseph L., "A Statistical Study of the Use of City School Systems by Student Teachers in Colleges and Universities in the United States," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 12, 1926, pp. 326-39.



ence for training schools of their own, attached to the university or college, while 24 preferred an outside training school, entirely independent of the university or college. The comments of interest on this question were:

"Our control is adequate, conditions are typical."

"But with our large numbers we shall probably need both, our own and the public school."

"We have both. Each plan has its advantages. I now lean toward a com-

various members of the department of education. It is noted that in some cases the members of the academic department of the university direct the student teaching. A summary of the colleges reporting follows:

The regular high school teacher.....	48
The supervisor of student teachers.....	45
The head of the department of education .....	26
Principal of high school .....	21
Various members of the department of education .....	20

Table III. Number of Schools Indicating the Position of Those Directing and Supervising Student Teachers Doing Practice Teaching in the Public High School

	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non- State Schools	Totals
The regular high school teacher.....	12	11	25	48
The supervisor of student teachers .....	12	10	23	45
The head of the department of education.....	1	4	21	26
Principal of high school.....	6	6	9	21
Members of the academic department of the univer- sity .....	1	2	8	11
Various members of department of education.....	7	4	9	20
Director of training school .....	1	2	2	5

NOTE: Of the 92 replies received, 74 have a general director of student teachers. Head of Department of Education acts in this capacity in 26 institutions. In most instances some member of the staff of the college of education is the general director; in two colleges the City Superintendent of Schools; in three colleges principal of high school.

bination of the two, the training school being for experimental and demonstration purposes."

"As long as we can continue satisfactory arrangements with the Board of Education, prefer the public school."

"Not practical with our small enrollment of student teachers."

According to Table III, the most common practice is for the regular high school teacher to supervise and direct the student teaching. Other persons who are reported frequently for this type of student teacher training are: supervisor of student teachers, head of the department of education, principal of high school, and

Members of the academic department..11

It is observed from the table that a more or less definite combination of supervising agencies direct the student teaching. Mead<sup>3</sup> says, "In general, the department, or school of education should always hold the final power of supervision. This implies the existence of some sort of general director. As far as possible, all of the supervision should be conducted by the staff in education, or by them and their co-workers in the

<sup>3</sup>Mead, A. R., "Methods of Selection and Supervision of Practice Teachers," *The Eighteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part I, 1919, pp. 292-344.

training school, . . . . It is the writer's view that this is the most crucial problem of the administration of practice teaching, in its present status. To secure sufficient supervisory staff, with training to do the work, is now an impossibility, because such supervisors do not exist." This problem will be presented more fully in the presentation of data pertaining to supervision in Chapter III.

Eleven colleges report that members of their academic department direct student teaching. It is observed that this practice is most common in the non-state colleges, and this may be due to the lack of sufficient staff in the department of education to give proper supervision to student teaching. A history of the development of student teaching shows that the tendency has been to turn such supervisory duties to the staff of the education department. Santee<sup>4</sup> in his study

exercises general supervision in the larger number of cases reporting. Other persons having this duty specifically assigned in about the same frequencies are: principal of high school, dean of college of education, a professor of secondary education, and the general director of the training school. Other persons reported for this responsibility of supervision are: director of practice, head of department of teaching, superintendent of public schools in two instances, supervisors of departments where provided, supervisor of student teaching, supervisor of critic teacher, and superintendent of training school. In the preceding table it is noted that out of 92 replies, 74 colleges indicate that they have a general director of student teachers. This reveals a promising situation in the matter of general supervision provided the schedule of the general supervisor permits ample time for

Table IV. Number of Schools Reporting the Position of Those Who Exercise General Supervision Over the Observation and Practice Teaching Work in the Training School Owned and Controlled Exclusively by the College or the University.

	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non- State Schools	Totals
Principal of the high school.....	6	3	0	9
Head of the department of education.....	1	8	8	17
Dean of the college of education.....	4	1	3	8
Professor of secondary education.....	6	2	---	8
General director of training school.....	2	7	---	9
Any other persons .....	5	12	2	19

of practice teaching in seventy state normal schools in 1917 reports full responsibility for supervision of practice teaching in 6 per cent of the schools, partial responsibility in 61 per cent and little or no responsibility in 33 per cent.

The data in Table IV show that the head of the department of education

this very important phase of student teacher training. This study does not give any data on this matter. In another division of the study showing the number of student teachers supervised by the college of education staff further information will be set forth bearing upon this problem.

A wholesome condition generally exists in the colleges of the North Central Association since practically all of the

<sup>4</sup>Santee, A. M., "Organization and Administration of Practice Teaching in State Normal Schools," *School and Home Education*, September, 1917.

Table V. Number of Schools Reporting the Position of Those Supervising the Instruction in General of the Training School

Types of training school .....	State Universities		State Teachers Colleges		Non-State Schools		Totals
	1	2	1	2	1	2	
Principal of the high school .....	7	8	4	3	4	16	42
Director of high school who is a member of the college of education faculty and regular professor of secondary education .....	6	3	5	0	2	4	20
Head of the department of education.....	2	0	6	2	3	13	26
Any other persons .....	4	3	13	1	1	7	29

Table VI. Persons Exercising General Administrative Control of the Training School Owned by the University or College

Number of colleges in which the following exercise control:	State Universities		State Teachers Colleges		Non-State Schools		Totals
	1	2	1	2	1	2	
1. Principal .....	9		6		6		21
2. Director of training school.....	1		15				16
3. Dean of the college of education.....	0		1		2		3
4. Professor of secondary education.....	4		0		1		5
5. Head of department of education.....	6		2		2		10
6. President of college.....			3		0		3

supervision of student teaching in the college controlled training school is conducted by the staff in education, or by them and their co-workers in the training school.

The principal of the high school, in most cases, exercises the supervision of instruction in general of the training school. Other persons mentioned frequently are: head of department of education and director of high school who is a member of the college of education faculty.

The principal of the high school exercises supervision of instruction in general of the training school, reported in Table V by types of schools:

In training school owned by the college .....15 cases  
 In training school in public school system .....27 cases

A staff member of the college of education exercises supervision of instruction in general of the training school:

In training school owned by the college .....24 cases  
 In training school in public school system .....22 cases

It is significant to note the relatively large number of colleges in which a member of the college staff supervises the instruction in general of the training school belonging to the public school system. This condition indicates a type of control that is desirable and satisfactory. Other persons reported as supervising the instruction in general of the training school are: superintendent of training school (4 cases), superintendent of public schools (3 cases), director of training school, dean of college of education.

Table VII. An Analysis of the Staff of the Training School Owned and Controlled Exclusively by the University

PART I	State Universities		State Teachers Colleges		Non-State Schools		Totals	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Number of colleges whose training school teachers are members of the college of education staff....	13	4	17	4	5	4	35	12
Number of colleges whose training school teachers are teaching professional courses in the college of education .....	14	5	17	8	5	3	36	16
Number of colleges whose training teachers are teaching:								
1. Methods courses .....	11		15		10		36	
2. Psychology (Introduction) .....	---		2		2		4	
3. Educational psychology .....	---		---		2		2	
4. Principles of teaching .....	---		2		3		5	
5. High School Problems.....	1		---		---		1	
PART II								
Minimum professional and academic requirements for high school training teachers: (Both types of high school included)								
(a) Number of colleges requiring an A. M. degree as a minimum.....	8		12		14		33	
(b) Number of colleges requiring an A. B. degree as a minimum .....	14		17		25		56	
(c) Number of hours required in education:								
Minimum .....	14		15		10		10	
Maximum .....	30		40		30		40	
Average .....	18.7		22.2		19.6		19.9	
A. D .....	4.4		6.7		4.7		5.	
(d) Number of hours required in the subject being taught by them:								
Minimum .....	20		15		10		10	
Maximum .....	50		20		36		50	
Average .....	28.8		18.8		21.2		23.4	

Table VI shows that the general administrative control of the training school owned exclusively by the college is exercised in most cases by:

The principal of the high school .....21 reported  
 The director of the training school .....16 reported  
 A member of the college of education staff .....18 reported

The general tendency in the college training school, therefore, is for a staff member directly connected with the school to exercise general administrative control.

Table VII includes data on a phase of the administrative organization of training which determines in a large measure the ideals, habits and skills acquired by student teachers as a result of



their supervised practice in the training school. To secure sufficient supervisory staff with adequate training and experience to do the work is a difficult matter for every institution.

From 47 colleges reporting, 35 reply that their training teachers are classified as members of the college of education staff. These figures apply only to the colleges which own and control exclusively their training school and include the staffs of such schools only. It is only in rare instances that the members of a public high school training staff are classified on the college of education faculty. About 80 per cent of the training school staffs of the state universities and state teachers colleges are members of the college of education staff.

From 48 reporting, 32 colleges report that their training school staff are teaching professional courses in the college of education. The subjects reported taught are as follows:

- 36 are teaching methods courses.
- 4 are teaching psychology.
- 2 are teaching educational psychology.
- 5 are teaching principles of teaching.
- 1 is teaching high school problems.

An examination of the data indicates that the training staffs teaching professional subjects are connected, in most cases, with a college requiring a minimum of a master's degree. Since the staffs of these training schools directly supervise the student teachers' class room work, the methods courses should be taught by the former more efficiently than by any one else. Special notations made by colleges indicating whether the training school staff are members of the college of education are as follows: "Part of them are," "In part," "Heads of departments are, others are not," "Those who are regularly appointed critic teachers," "Except one,"

"No line of demarcation between the training school staff and the college of education," "One out of five," "With three exceptions." Special remarks relating to those who teach professional courses are as follows: "During the regular college year, no, during summer terms they do frequently," "Part of them," "In the summer quarter only," "Two do, one doesn't," "Except one," "Five teach special methods," "Only the one may," "Except three who are members of the college staff."

From 89 colleges of all three types reporting, 33 colleges report the requirement of a master's degree as a minimum. From the former total number reporting, the following colleges, which maintain for training purposes only public high schools, constitute those requiring the minimum of a master's degree: Lake Erie College, Wittenburg College, Wabash College, University of Cincinnati, Miami University, St. Olaf College, Hiram College, Wooster College, Otterbein College, Kansas State Teachers College, Detroit Teachers College, Indiana University. Special notations on the replies to the question relating to minimum academic requirements of training teachers are: "For new members of the staff, master's degree required," "Most of the critic teachers have nearly the M. A. degree," "Prefer, however, not absolute," "Five-sevenths have M. A. degree," "Almost all have M. A. degree," "Have not attained this, about one-half have M. A. degree."

A total of 56 colleges are requiring the bachelor's degree as a minimum requirement of their training teachers. It is further observed that 28 colleges do not indicate a requirement for either degree. In these cases it is safe to assume that at least for some of the 28, lower standards are permissible.

On the basis of the number of colleges furnishing data for their minimum academic requirements for training teachers it is noted that:

37 per cent of the colleges require a master's degree.

63 per cent of the colleges require a bachelor's degree.

It is observed that the status of requirements for training teachers as reported in this study is based upon the number of colleges rather than upon the number of the former included.

Armentrout<sup>5</sup> in a recent study including 73 senior high school teachers reports: 4.2 per cent have two year's collegiate training, 58.9 per cent have bachelor's degrees, 36.9 per cent have master's degrees. Santee<sup>6</sup> in his 1917 study of 70 state normal schools representing 35 states reports for the requirements of training teachers: 17 per cent require college graduation, 34 per cent require normal school graduation, 30 per cent require the equivalent of normal school graduation. At that time, it should be noted, most of the normal schools were training only elementary teachers.

The American Association of Teachers Colleges in the annual meeting in 1927 adopted the following standards for the preparation of training teachers:

Minimum scholastic requirement for teachers in training school, the bachelor's degree or its equivalent; for those who give instruction in the college department, the master's degree. Three years beyond bachelor's degree is desirable. The train-

ing should be strictly professional in quality.

The average number of hours required in education by 87 institutions reporting for their training high school teachers is 19.9. State teachers colleges tend to place more emphasis upon professional training than do the other two types of colleges, however, the average deviation is greater in this type of institution. The average requirement in education for all the institutions is that as fixed for standard by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. A total of 87 colleges have an average requirement of 23.4 hours in the subject taught by the training teachers. State universities maintain the highest requirement in this qualification of their training teachers. The minimum requirement as fixed by standardizing organizations is 30 hours.

While the general tendency of the colleges of the North Central Association is in the direction of increasing the professional and academic standards of training teachers, yet no uniform standard has been attained which approaches a desirable measure. "Critic teachers should not only have a thorough knowledge of subject-matter in the field of education but also a knowledge of technical skills in how to train teachers how to teach, for this is the duty of the critic teacher. There is a difference between teaching arithmetic to teachers and teaching men and women the art of teaching arithmetic. The weakest part of the uncertain curriculum now set up for the preparation of critic teachers as reported by them are: (1) lack of courses dealing with critic and practice teaching, (2) too much theory and not enough practical application, (3) lack of training in general methods, (4) lack of training and experience in critic work, (5) lack of

<sup>5</sup>Armentrout, W. D., "The Conduct of Student Teaching in State Teachers Colleges," *Colorado State Teachers College*, 1927, p. 166.

<sup>6</sup>Santee, A. M., "Organization and Administration of Practice Teaching in State Normal Schools," *School and Home Education*, September, 1917.

knowledge or organization and construction of curriculum making, and (6) lack of job analyses of critic teachers' duties."<sup>7</sup>

"At the present time only a few of the outstanding teachers colleges and schools of education offer any large number of definite, systematic courses for the professional preparation of supervisors. And where such courses are offered, very little, or no distinction is made between public school and training school supervision. The needs of training teachers are very different from those of public school supervisors. The training teacher has a two-fold problem, a double responsibility, to teach children and student teachers at the same time; whereas the problem of the public school supervisor is unified and centers around one objective, namely, the improvement of instruction. The training teacher has also the additional problem of correlating all of his work with the other departments in the college.

"There is real need of a distinctly professional course for preparing supervisors of student teaching. If possible, it should constitute a year of graduate work leading to a master's degree. Successful public school teachers and supervisors should be urged to pursue such a course. State teachers colleges offering this graduate work might select from the field some of their most promising and successful undergraduates and offer them a scholarship providing for a year of graduate study preparing for training school supervision."<sup>8</sup>

The bearing of salaries on this problem will be presented in a brief discussion of tabulated data in the Appendix.

The data in Table VIII are given for those colleges which use for student teaching one type of training school, owned and controlled exclusively by the college and located on the campus. Since the inquiry for this study does not call for the number of training teachers and the number of pupils in both types of high schools used for training purposes, an estimate of standard facilities for student teaching as they relate to number of supervisors, training teachers and pupils can be obtained only for the colleges which own and use the one type of training school. Thirty-three colleges furnish data for this phase of administrative practice.

An examination of this table with reference to the number of members on the college of education staff, the number of the staff acting as supervisors of student teachers, and number of student teachers shows a range of:

0 to 35 student teachers assigned to each member of the staff.

19 colleges have an assignment of 2 to 12 student teachers for each staff member.

6 colleges report no student teachers assigned to staff members.

Since no information is furnished showing the amount of time those members of the college of education staff have for supervising the student teachers' activities and the supervision of the critic teachers, no reliable judgment can be made for the effectiveness of the contribution being made by the staff members in teacher training. The tendency of this group of colleges is to provide facilities for some general supervision of student teaching through the college of education staff. The following special notations made by those replying indicate that the regular teacher of the train-

<sup>7</sup>Bowden, A. D., "The Training of Critic Teachers in the United States," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 15, 1927, p. 118.

<sup>8</sup>Armentrout, W. D., op. cit., pp. 167-168.

Table VIII. Relation of Enrollment of Student Teachers, Training School Pupils and Training Staff of University High School

College or University	No. members on College of Education staff (Not including training school staff).	No. of the staff supervising the work of student teaching	No. student teachers assigned to each member of staff	Do professors of academic courses in other departments supervise practice teaching?		Enrollment in University High School	No. students enrolled for supervised teaching (1927-28).	No. training teachers on University High School Staff
				Yes	No			
No. 1.....	2	1	35	..	x	135	20	10
No. 2.....	72	17	2	..	x	256	102	6
No. 3.....	4	0	0	..	x	175	100	12
No. 4.....	5	0	0	..	x	294	56	7
No. 5.....	18	0	0	..	x	250	200	23
No. 6.....	5	5	16	..	x	130	175	5
No. 7.....	35	6	1 to 8	..	x	221	26	25
No. 8.....	2	1	5	x	..	235	5	13
No. 9.....	5	0	0	x	..	100	81	6
No. 10.....	2	0	0	x	..	92	112	4
No. 11.....	32	7	1 to 6	x	..	120	51	4
No. 12.....	8	3	1 to 2	..	x	.....	.....	.....
No. 13.....	30	25	1 to 8	..	..	.....	98	.....
No. 14.....	.....	.....	.....	..	..	238	80	11
No. 15.....	.....	.....	.....	..	x	107	37	5
No. 16.....	2	2	1 to 9	..	x	77	50	.....
No. 17.....	1	1	3	..	x	198	20	12
No. 18.....	4	1	9	..	x	185	335	18
No. 19.....	4	4	.....	..	x	105	40	.....
No. 20.....	16	.....	2 to 4	..	x	380	700	31
No. 21.....	50	6	18	..	x	350	180	35
No. 22.....	2	2	4	..	x	154	8	10
No. 23.....	6	2	5	..	x	166	41	9
No. 24.....	5	1	.....	..	x	120	73	8
No. 25.....	30	5	3 to 12	..	x	150	125	15
No. 26.....	4	1	6	..	x	154	60	6
No. 27.....	3	2	15	..	x	40	38	9(?)
No. 28.....	4	4	4 to 5	x	..	48	62	1
No. 29.....	3	3	3 to 5	x	..	47	31	.....
No. 30.....	13	3	12 to 14	x	..	200	26	5
No. 31.....	38	5	3	..	x	201	84	11
No. 32.....	15	14	2 to 4	x	..	68	20	9
No. 33.....	29	0	0	..	x	569	77	38

(From complete data)

State Universities .....	3	27
State Teachers Colleges .....	11	16
Non-State Schools .....	17	36
Total .....	31	79



ing school acts in the capacity of critic and supervisory teacher: "Student teachers are assigned to all supervisors," "High school staff supervises student teachers," "Assigned to each supervising teacher," "We keep within standard of 18, i. e., 9 each semester for each supervising teacher."

The standard as adopted by the American Association of Teachers Colleges in 1927 is: "In the training school there shall be at least one training school teacher for every eighteen student teachers, each of whom does 90 clock hours of student teaching." When measured by this standard, a study of the number of training teachers and of the number of college of education staff supervising student teachers in relation to the number of student teachers reveals that reasonable facilities for supervision, in most cases, are provided. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching sets up a still more rigid standard than the American Association of State Teachers Colleges: "One *full time* supervisor to every *eight* student teachers may well be accepted as a desirable standard."

A study of the part of this table showing the relation of the number of student teachers to the number of training school pupils to be practiced upon reveals another very important phase of teacher training from which to judge its effectiveness. The need for a sufficient number of pupils is more imperative in practice teaching than in observation and participation. The size of the "practice class" should be the unit from which to work in constructing a minimal standard. The Carnegie Report<sup>9</sup> gives a formula for determining the enrollment that a training school should have to provide the proper

facilities for student teaching. The formula is stated (if one-half of the teaching is done by student teachers) thus:

$$N=1.30 \left[ \frac{15 S C M}{t} \right] .2$$

N=minimal training enrollment.

S=number of students to whom student teaching must be available each year (the number who graduate).

C=number of recitation units during which each student will be in charge of a section each week.

M=proportion of total year student teaching is required.

t=number of recitation units each week (30). Fifteen per cent is added to allow for the relation between enrollment and attendance, and another fifteen per cent as a margin to insure sections of at least fifteen pupils.

The following comparative enrollments (the derived minimal standard enrollments from the formula and the actual enrollments) show the limited facilities of a group of 33 colleges in the North Central Association.

Institution	Enrollment in Training School if Minimal Standards Were Met	Actual Enrollment in Training High School	Total No. Student Teachers Enrolled 1927-28
1-----	65	135	20
2-----	330	256	102
3-----	325	175	100
4-----	182	294	56
5-----	650	250	200
6-----	85	221	26
7-----	16	235	5
8-----	263	100	81
9-----	566	130	175
10-----	364	92	112
11-----	166	120	51
12-----	318	---	---
13-----	260	238	80
14-----	119	107	37
15-----	161	77	50

<sup>9</sup>Carnegie Bulletin No. 14, p. 194.

Institution	Enrollment in Training School if Minimal Standards Were Met	Actual Enrollment in Training High School	Total No. Student Teachers Enrolled 1927-28
16-----	65	198	20
17-----	1,086	185	335
18-----	130	105	40
19-----	2,275	380	700
20-----	540	350	180
21-----	26	154	8
22-----	133	166	41
23-----	243	120	75
24-----	405	150	125
25-----	195	154	60
26-----	81	40	38
27-----	201	48	62
28-----	101	47	31
29-----	85	200	26
30-----	201	273	84
31-----	65	68	20
32-----	244	569	77
Total	20,546	6,237	

The minimal standards from which the training enrollments are derived:

15 pupils the minimum number of pupils for a private class.

5 recitation units taught per week by each student teacher, one hour each for 18 weeks, a total of 90 clock hours.

$\frac{1}{2}$  of instruction in training school given by student teachers.

All the colleges in the group for which standard sized training schools are computed report only one type of training school used for student teaching for which the actual enrollments are given. The figures indicate a decided lack of facilities from the standpoint of pupils needed for student teaching when the standards for such training are based upon those set up by some of the recognized national agencies.

Institutions No. 19 and No. 24 in this group, which show an unusually large

group of student teachers in proportion to the size of the training school, provide a plan of student participation that facilitates the problem of high school enrollment and may be as successful as any other method if tested scientifically. The plan as described briefly through one of the college's bulletins is:

"A senior, specializing in some subject with the expectation of teaching it, is assigned to some one of the classes in that subject in the University High School. He is required to meet regularly each day with the class and to be responsible for class work just as the high school pupils are. His first responsibility is, therefore, to become a high school pupil and to learn to see conditions from the standpoint of the high school pupil . . . When the University Senior, by the quality of his class work, by his attitude and interest, has won a place which entitles him to recognition, he is ready for new responsibility. This new responsibility assumes many forms and varies in degrees from the most simple to the most complex. . . . A few of the possibilities in this field may be mentioned: conducting and explaining an experiment for the group, giving special attention to one or more slower pupils, helping pupils who registered after the start of school, correcting papers or themes, either in or out of class, formulating test and examination questions, and serving as general assistant to the regular staff teacher. . . . Towards the close of the semester, the progress of the senior should be such that the staff teacher should feel justified in turning over the class to him for an entire period. In some cases, this privilege will doubtless be granted a number of times."

Since this type of participation is used to a very limited extent in this group of

colleges and the usual plan of observation and student teaching is followed, the need of increased "pupil enrollment" in the training school is readily seen.

Armentrout<sup>9</sup> says, "There is perhaps only one practical solution to the problem of handling the ever increasing number of student teachers in the training schools, and that is some plan of cooperative agreement with the local public schools whereby they may be made available for training purposes. In general the facilities for observation and student teaching in training schools which have no cooperative arrangement with the public schools are in striking contrast to the facilities in training schools which have some form of cooperative arrangement." The differences that exist are shown to be in favor of those colleges controlling one or more local public schools. Since the larger number of the colleges reporting have cooperating public schools for training purposes, the probability is strong that this type of college offers the more satisfactory facilities for student teaching due to the nearer approach to meeting minimal standards adopted for student teaching.

The data below reveal the actual enrollments and the enrollments based on the minimal standards

$$(N=1.30 \left[ \frac{15 \text{ S C M}}{t} \right] .2)$$

of training schools connected exclusively with public school systems. A comparative study of these enrollments with the enrollments of training schools owned exclusively by the colleges and on the campus will show that the former have more adequate facilities in number of pupils for student teaching.

Institution	*Enrollment in Training Schools if Minimal Standards Had Been Met	Actual Enrollment	Number of Student Teachers 1927-28
1-----	91	1,170	28
2-----	487	2,903	150
3-----	319	700	98
4-----	137	130	42
5-----	98	150	30
6-----	202	450	62
7-----	62	119	19
8-----	123	1,100	38
9-----	162	2,600	50
10-----	210	246	65
11-----	26	700	8
12-----	40	543	12
13-----	159	200	49
14-----	1,300	1,200	400
15-----	137	1,100	42
16-----	243	1,100	75
17-----	74	75	23
18-----	195	380	60
19-----	85	946	26
20-----	665	600	205
21-----	1,354	282	417
22-----	150	100	46
23-----	123	---	38
24-----	260	75	80
25-----	204	310	63
26-----	243	2,000	75
27-----	162	350	50
28-----	117	1,700	36
29-----	20	2,700	6
30-----	634	705	195
31-----	137	400	42
32-----	98	467	30
33-----	50	125	15

\*Standards used for campus training school.

## CHAPTER II

### Organization of the Student Teaching Group

#### SELECTION OF STUDENT TEACHERS

Reports from 112 institutions afford the following data in Table IX indi-

<sup>9</sup>Op. cit., p. 151.

cating the classes from which student teachers are selected:

Freshman .....	none
Sophomore .....	none
Junior .....	27
Senior .....	99
Combination Fifth-year Course ..	2
Graduate .....	3

Various combinations of classes from which student teachers are selected exist. Most of the cases reported for the Junior year include selection for observation in the training school. The number of in-

Table X summarizes the data which indicates the persons who approve the selection of the student teacher. It is noted that the head of the department of education most frequently approves the selection. Next ranks the head of the college department representing the subject taught. The principal of the training school ranks third in frequency of those who select. An examination of the comments made by those answering this question reveals that these different agencies work jointly in the selection of

Table IX. The Classes from Which Practice Teachers Are Selected

Number of colleges selecting from:	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non-State Schools	Totals
1. Freshman class .....	0	0	0	0
2. Sophomore class .....	0	0	0	0
3. Junior class .....	3	17	7	27
4. Senior class .....	28	25	46	99
5. Fifth year class.....	4	5	2	11
6. Graduate class .....	7	4	3	14

stitutions which select student teachers from both Junior and Senior years are:

State Teachers Colleges.....	10
State Universities .....	5
Non-State Institutions .....	8

The fifth year selection is made in most cases where students have decided late in their course to teach and hence are obliged to remain in college an additional year to meet the requirements for certification. However, the University of Cincinnati makes selection only from the fifth year and from graduates. A good portion of the fifth year is used by those in training for teaching in student teaching in the public schools. It is thus evident that the prevalent tendency of the colleges of the North Central Association to select student teachers from groups of students who have had three or more years of college training.

the student teachers. The nine non-state institutions reporting the selection by the superintendent make selection from the student teaching group of those he approves for practice teaching in the public schools used for training purposes. There is a strong tendency for the department of education to be the controlling factor in the selection of student teachers.

#### FACTORS CONSIDERED IN THE SELECTION OF STUDENT TEACHERS

Eight specific factors for the selection of student teachers are grouped in Table XI. The frequencies of these factors as reported by the colleges are ranked in order according to the number of times mentioned:

a. Familiarity with subject matter	83
b. Moral status .....	53
c. Scholastic rank .....	42



Table X. The Persons Who Approve the Selection of the Student Teacher

	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non- State Schools	Totals
Number of colleges approving selection by				
1. Head of department of education.....	11	15	36	62
2. Principal of the training school.....	4	11	6	21
3. Regular teacher in the training school.....	1	1	3	5
4. Regular instructor in the education department .....	6	1	3	10
5. Superintendent of public schools.....	0	0	9	9
6. Head of college department representing subject taught .....	3	9	13	25
7. A supervising teacher of practice teaching.....	6	3	6	15
8. Director of teacher training.....	2	4	1	7

Table XI. Factors Considered in the Selection of the Student Teacher

	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non- State Schools	Totals
I. Number of colleges using:				
1. Tests to assist in selection .....	0	4	7	11
2. Standardized tests .....	3	2	12	17
3. Familiarity with subject taught.....	20	24	39	83
4. Practical teaching test .....	2	3	7	12
5. Physical status .....	7	12	24	43
6. Moral status .....	8	15	30	53
7. Scholastic rank: .....	13	11	18	42
(a) In general college work.....	13	11	26	50
(b) In subject to be taught.....	10	11	28	49
(c) In prerequisite courses in education.....	8	10	17	35
8. Any special tests .....	1	3	0	4
9. Other factors considered .....	7	10	16	33
II. Number of colleges which require the student teacher to discontinue after no fitness for teaching has been revealed in practice teaching.....	20	24	36	80

College work in general .....	50
In subject to be taught .....	49
In prerequisite courses in education .....	35
d. Physical Status .....	43
e. Standardized tests .....	17
f. Practical teaching test .....	12
g. Tests to assist in selection .....	11
h. Special tests .....	4

It is interesting to note the emphasis which is being placed upon familiarity with subject matter in the light of the emphasis which is being placed upon

the importance of academic preparation of teachers. There is a tendency in many training institutions and in state departments of education to reduce the requirement in professional courses and to increase the requirement in academic subjects. There is a general feeling that professional courses have been pursued out of proportion to academic studies. Student teachers, in a large proportion of the colleges represented in this study, must give evidence before starting practice teaching that they have had thorough training in at least two fields of academic

subject matter. While we would not minimize the value of professional courses, yet we note that many of the best thinkers in the field of education are pointing out the need of teachers being well trained in the academic subject matter of their particular field.

It is observable that there is a fairly strong tendency to fix requirements in scholastic standards for entrance into student teaching. About 90 per cent of the colleges require some standard in at least one of the three items listed. Under the head of general college work the following comments are made: "Passing," "Average or better," "In three-fourths of all previous work a grade of C," "Upper 50 per cent," "Average of 80 per cent," "Minimum average grade of C," "50 per cent of grades earned, C or above," "Upper quartile," "Upper fourth of class," "Above average," "In three-fourths of previous work a grade of C," "50 per cent of grades earned C or above," "Upper quartile," "Upper fifth of class," "Passing," "Passing or D," "C in pre-teaching observation." Where scholastic ranking is considered as a factor in selection there is no uniform and generally accepted standard used in the colleges.

About 40 per cent of the colleges reporting take the physical status into consideration when selecting the student teacher. No specific regulations are reported. It is a practice in many of the colleges to require a certain amount of physical education, but this is no more applicable to the teaching profession than to any other profession. This factor is generally recognized as an important part in the selection of a teaching staff, and perhaps, should be given more serious consideration by training departments.

A greater number have a requirement concerning moral status than concerning physical status. As in the case of physical status it may be questioned whether enough attention is given to moral status in the selection of student teachers.

The total number of colleges reporting the use of some kind of tests is 32. The following tests are specifically mentioned: Columbia Research Tests, a series of diagnostic tests prescribed by the Ohio State Department of Education; Ohio College Association Cooperative Tests; Ohio State University Psychological Tests. Two institutions report the use of achievement tests. In a comparison with earlier studies of student teaching, this investigation reveals a more general increase in the use of tests for the selection of student teachers.

Under the classification of "other factors," those which are more generally mentioned are: "Desire of student," "Head of department of education, principal of training school and head of collegiate department representing subject to be taught steer unlikely candidates away," "Character, general fitness, cooperation, willingness to work," "Prerequisite courses in education successfully completed," "Careful censorship from day to day after starting," "Accepted on trial," "Professional attitude, social leadership," "Appearance, use of language, nationality, et al."

In comparison with earlier studies of student teaching, this study seems to reveal a stronger tendency to select upon the basis of fitness and promise of success. In consideration of the importance of obtaining teachers who have aptitude and training for successful teaching the practice of the colleges in exercising care

Table XII. Credits (in Semester Hours) in Education Required Before Allowed to Do Practice Teaching

	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non- State Schools	Totals
Minimum required—				
Frequencies .....	28	22	40	90
Average .....	10.7	12.1	12.2	11.8
Range .....	4-24	4-25	2-20	2-25
Average obtained—				
Average .....	14	25.5	13.8	16.7
Range .....	5-25	8-25	2-25	2-25
A. D. ....	.....	.....	.....	5.22

in the selection should be continued with even greater consideration.

It is significant to note that 80 colleges require the student teacher to discontinue after no fitness for teaching has been revealed in practice teaching. The following replies are given to the question, "After what length of time?"

"No definite time."

"Two weeks," reported twice.

"Three to six weeks," reported five times.

"Eight to fourteen weeks."

"One semester," reported once.

"Varies," reported four times.

"Six to twelve weeks," reported twice.

"Ten weeks,"

According to Table XII, the minimum average number of credits required in education before allowed to do practice teaching as reported for 90 institutions is 11.8 semester hours. The average obtained for the same number of institutions is 16.7 semester hours. Mead<sup>1</sup> reports for his study in 1917 for 54 institutions a median average obtained of 12 semester hours. The standard of 16.7 semester hours attained in the colleges of the North Central Association per-

mits that the generally recognized professional courses such as educational psychology, general methods, principles of teaching, and observation and student teaching can be included in the 16.7 hours and a possible opening left for some other type of course. Furthermore, this standard of 16.7 hours in 128 semester hours required for a degree make possible a distribution of the rest of the student's college work so that groupings of 20-30 credits may be obtained in each of two or more academic subjects to be taught, in addition to a fairly wide range of choice for general educational courses in other fields of knowledge. The average minimum requirement of 11.8 hours is, perhaps, too low for acceptance and the maximum as noted in the ranges, 25 hours, is too high.

There is one fundamental difference between the preparation of teachers and that of most of the other professional workers; teacher training schools must provide liberal education and at the same time professional training. A difficult problem presents itself in determining the proper balance between the two types of training and just the most effective place to introduce the professional courses in relation to observation and practice teaching.

<sup>1</sup>Mead, A. R., "Method of Selection and Supervision of Practice Teachers," *The Eighteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part I, 1919, p. 302.

Snedden<sup>2</sup> holds that student teaching should come at the outset of the student's work. This plan, he affirms, would constitute a concrete basis for technical study later.

A similar view is held by Charters,<sup>3</sup> who states, "We have signally failed to recognize elements of preparation that are appropriate to the apprenticeship stage of teaching, and have attempted to prepare master workmen all at once out of those who have had little or no experience on the job. . . . Liberalizing courses, such as history of education, principles of education, educational sociology, etc., are indispensable to the superior teacher and master workman; however, their value is certainly much lessened when they are made basic for the practical work and given to immature, inexperienced undergraduates. They should be recognized as the culmination of the professional training of the teacher rather than the beginning of such training."

On the other hand, an entirely different viewpoint from that of Snedden and Charters is taken by educators who have been students of the problem involved. Dewey<sup>4</sup> says, "The argument that theoretical instruction is merely abstract and in the air unless students are set at once to test and illustrate by practice teaching of their own, overlooks the continuity of classroom mental activity with that of other normal experiences. It ignores the tremendous importance for educational purposes of this continuity.

Those who employ this argument seem to isolate the psychology of learning that goes on in the schoolroom from the psychology of learning found elsewhere."

The middle position taken by Bagley<sup>5</sup> is the one that seems to be prevalent more generally in training institutions. In connection with the theory courses Bagley would give the student teacher at the outset a survey of the field of education, dealing mainly with principles and the various opinions regarding questionable theories. "My aim would be to lead the student gradually to accumulate his facts and questions, dispose of them specifically and provisionally as he goes on, and come finally toward the close of his preservice education to a fundamental and thoroughgoing study of educational principles."

To determine the most effective method for the training of the student teacher, needed research should be made on this particular problem as in many other problems of teacher training.

The data presented in Table XIII show practically all the prerequisite courses which are required by the colleges reporting. A few other courses, varied in name and in content to some extent, are listed in special notations: genetics, high school teaching, oral expression, library technique, class room management (reported four times), adolescent psychology, educational sociology, general methods in high school.

The following tendencies present themselves in these data:

(1) To require in almost every college educational psychology. This is a tendency which has had marked devel-

<sup>2</sup>Snedden, David, *The Problem of Vocational Education*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1910, p. 281.

<sup>3</sup>Charters, W. W., *Curriculum Construction*, p. 281.

<sup>4</sup>Dewey, John, "The Relation of Theory and Practice in Education," *The Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part I, p. 17.

<sup>5</sup>Bagley, W. C., "Preparing Teachers for the Urban Service," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 8, 1922, p. 400.



Table XIII. Professional Courses Prerequisite to Practice Teaching and Credit in Semester Hours Required in Each

Type of Course	Minimum	Maximum	Median	Freq. Reporting of Colleges
General Psychology .....	2	6	3.2	94
Educational Psychology .....	2	6	3.4	108
Principles of Teaching in High School.....	1½	4	3.	88
Special Methods .....	1	6	2.5	40
In one subject .....	1	6	2.3	58
In all subjects .....	1	6	2.5	24
Adm. of Secondary Education.....	2	4	3.1	24
Observation of Teaching in High School.....	1	4	2.2	26
History of Education .....	2	5	2.6	27
Principles of Education.....	2	6	2-⅔	38
Tests and Measurements .....	2	4	2.5	26

opment in recent years and one that meets the requirements suggested in earlier studies.

(2) Quite generally to require general psychology.

(3) To give a prominent position to principles of teaching in high school as a prerequisite.

(4) To require, in about one-half of the colleges reporting, special methods in one subject. Many colleges report that this course is offered as a parallel course with practice teaching. There may be differences of opinion as to which is the better practice to follow.

(5) There is a rather weak tendency to require the other subjects listed, each of which holds about the same position: principles of education, history of education, observation of teaching in high school, tests and measurements, administration of secondary education.

(6) The median requirement in credit hours given is highest for those subjects which are found most frequently as prerequisites.

Since the comments made by Mead<sup>3</sup> in an earlier study are yet recognized as sound and very suggestive to those who

may be interested in this particular phase of student teacher problems, those are selected which bear upon the data as found in Table XIII. "Surely educational psychology ought to be a prerequisite. . . . This field, so rapidly developing, surely ought to be utilized to its fullest possibilities in training prospective teachers. A serious question may be raised about history of education as a prerequisite. . . . It seems wise to urge more institutions to make principles of teaching a prerequisite to entrance on practice teaching."

Since the tendency is to make all the generally required courses three semester hours in quantity, the total amount of prerequisite hours would not be more than 12-14 if all of them were included. If to this observation and student teaching were added, the total would not surpass a reasonable requirement in professional courses.

In a study made by Bowden<sup>7</sup> a large group of critic teachers were asked to suggest the weakest parts of the teacher training curriculum as now set up for the preparation of critic teachers. These

<sup>7</sup>Bowden, A. O., "The Training of Critic Teachers in the United States," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 15, 1927, p. 118.

<sup>3</sup>Mead, A. R., op. cit., pp. 304-07.

are the defects as reported by the critic teachers:

(1) Lack of courses dealing with critic and practice teaching.

(2) Too much theory and not enough practical application.

(3) Lack of training in general methods.

(4) Lack of knowledge of organization and construction of the curriculum.

The same group of critic teachers were requested to suggest the courses which they thought were most needed. These are the courses named in order of their rank of importance: special methods, critic work, physical education, tests and measurements, more subject matter courses, curriculum, philosophy of education, psychology, educational psychology, and general methods.

In the light of more recent trends in education and in consideration of the fact that many of the student teachers will eventually become critic teachers, the question may be raised whether the frequencies of the prerequisite courses should relatively stand as they do in Table XIII.

Teacher Training Bulletin No. 7, 1928, of the state department of education of West Virginia,<sup>8</sup> reveals the recent trends in professional and academic requirements for teacher training. A brief summary of the West Virginia requirements is herewith presented as a type of the more modern developments in teacher training curricula as they relate to professional subjects and specific academic subjects in the field for which the student teacher is preparing.

#### REQUIREMENTS:

(1) All courses in education are given in the junior and senior years.

(2) Student teaching must be given in the senior year except in special cases when the student has had teaching experience.

(3) The maximum amount of work in Education for which any student may get credit on any undergraduate curriculum is 24 semester hours; minimum amount 20 hours.

(4) Required professional courses in all curricula (some modification in subjects designated in agriculture, physical education, practical arts, music, and fine arts):

Educational Psychology	-----5 hours
High School Organization	---3 hours
Principles of Teaching in Secondary School	-----3 hours
Materials and Method in First Teaching Subject	-----2 hours
Directed Teaching in First Teaching Subject	-----3 hours
Total	-----16 hours

Elective on minimum requirement  
-----4 hours

Directed Teaching in Secondary Teaching Subject, 2 hours, and Materials and Methods in Second Teaching Subject, 2 hours, prescribed in some curricula.

(5) Academic Requirements: (Teaching Combinations include two fields for each curriculum)

Curricula	Minimum Requirement in First Teaching Field (hours)	Second Teaching Subject and Electives (hours)
English	----- 34	50
Mathematics	----- 16	56
Social Science	----- 34	44
Physical Science	-- 32	34
Biology and General Science	----- 34	(Physics 8) 36

<sup>8</sup>Clark, Robert, "Training and Certification of Teachers in West Virginia," *Teacher Training Bulletin*, No. 7, 1928, pp. 50-66.

Table XIV. Credits Allowed for Practice Teaching

Number of colleges allowing credit for practice teaching:	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non-State Schools	Totals
One and one-half hours.....	---	---	1	1
Two hours .....	2	---	6	8
Two and one-half hours.....	---	1	---	1
Three hours .....	8	2	17	27
Three and one-third hours.....	2	2	---	4
Four hours .....	5	4	9	18
Five hours .....	5	2	4	11
Five and one-third hours .....	---	2	---	2
Six hours .....	1	3	4	8
Seven hours .....	1	---	---	1
Seven and one-half hours .....	---	4	---	4
Eight hours .....	1	1	2	4
Ten hours .....	3	7	---	10
Average for all institutions .....	---	---	---	3.27
A D. for all institutions .....	---	---	---	2.07

Foreign Language - 20(2 units for 52  
entrance in  
addition)

Commercial ----- 36 39

Home Economics - 40 --

Agriculture ----- 50(based on 144  
hours for  
graduation)

Physical Education 30 32

Industrial Arts --- 40 32

Music ----- 40 54

Fine Arts ----- 34 46

(6) General Academic Requirements  
for all Four-year Curricula:

English and Public Speaking 12 hours

Social Science ----- 12 hours

Science ----- 6 hours

Health and Physical Education 8 hours

This rather extended outline of requirements is presented on account of its significance and bearing upon relative amounts of requirements in professional subjects and academic subjects. Such requirements have their influence on the degree of effectiveness of student teaching.

#### METHODS OF ACCREDITING STUDENT TEACHING

A study of Table XIV shows a varied practice in the arrangement for giving credit for student teaching. From a total of 99 colleges reporting, it is noted that:

27 institutions allow 3 hours credit.

18 institutions allow 4 hours credit.

11 institutions allow 5 hours credit.

The majority of the colleges, therefore, allow between 3 and 5 hours credit for student teaching. The average credit allowed for all colleges is 3.27 with an A. D. of 2.07. The non-state colleges and state universities show a greater tendency than state teachers colleges to concentrate around the central measure of 3.27 hours.

70 per cent of non-state colleges allow from 3 to 5 hours credit.

71 per cent of state universities allow from 3 to 5 hours credit.

36 per cent of state teachers colleges allow from 3 to 5 hours credit.

One would expect a tendency to grant credit more liberally in a college dis-

Table XV. Number of Class Periods of Practice Teaching Required of Each Student Teacher for One Semester Hour of Credit for All Institutions

	Freq.	State Universities	Freq.	State Teachers Colleges	Freq.	Non-State Schools
In 45-minute periods .....	10	---	10	---	20	---
Minimum required .....	---	10	---	8	---	12
Maximum required .....	---	54	---	90	---	90
Average obtained .....	---	15	---	24	---	18
In 50-minute periods.....	16	---	8	---	18	---
Minimum required .....	---	15	---	12	---	12
Maximum required .....	---	40	---	90	---	36
Average obtained .....	---	18	---	24	---	20

tinctly functioning as a teacher training institution. The situation as noted here is due for the tendency of state teachers colleges to allow fewer credits for a like amount of student teaching in the other types of institutions.

The range of credits allowed in each type of institution is as follows:

Non-state colleges,  $1\frac{1}{2}$  to 8 hours.

State teachers colleges,  $2\frac{1}{2}$  to 10 hours.

State universities, 2 to 10 hours.

While only 36 per cent of the state teachers colleges give credit to an amount near the average of all, yet it is noted that 43 per cent of the former colleges allow as much as 10 hours credit.

The facts presented in Table XV reveal the number of class periods required of each student teacher for one semester hour of credit for all institutions. It is noted that the data include a fair representation of our group of institutions.

From 84 institutions, it is observed that the median number of class periods of practice teaching required of each student for one semester hour of credit is 15 to 24. It is noted that state teachers colleges, in comparison with the other two types of institutions, require the greatest number of practice teaching class periods for one semester hour's credit.

Requirements on 45-minute period basis:

Maximum number of class periods for the three types: 54-90-90.

Minimum number of class periods for the three types: 10-8-12.

Average number of class periods for the three types: 15-24-18.

Requirements on 50-minute basis:

Maximum number of class periods for the three types: 40-90-36.

Minimum number of class periods for three types: 15-12-12.

Average number of class periods for three types: 18-24-20.

By making a comparison of these requirements with those of the standards as fixed by the American Association of State Teachers Colleges, it is observed that the minimum requirements are too low, the maximum too high, and the average for the state universities and non-state colleges about correct.

The following special notations are reported for periods other than 45 minutes and 50 minutes. Of the non-state institutions, six note: 60 minute periods with requirements of 36, 27, 20, 18, 15 and 14 class periods of teaching; and three note: 55 minute periods of 20 and 18 class periods of teaching. From the state universities two report 60 minute periods of 75 class periods of teaching; one reports a 55 minute period of 18 class periods of teaching. From the state teachers colleges four report 60 minute



Table XVI. Quantity of Practice Teaching Done by Each Practice Teacher

	Freq.	Quartile 1	Quartile 3	Min.	Med.	Max.	Mode
In 45 minute periods:							
Minimum required .....	46	40	90.8	7.5	60.2	360	90
Maximum obtained .....	44	45.6	90.	10.	70.	500	90
Average obtained .....	44	36.6	90.9	10.	54.	360	90
In 50 minute periods:							
Minimum required .....	27	36.2	90.4	12.	40.1	180	36
Maximum obtained .....	25	40.1	90.7	16.	45.2	270	36
Average obtained .....	27	36.5	90.4	15.	40.9	220	40
In 55 minute periods:							
Minimum required .....	15	.....	.....	50.	90.	135	90
Maximum obtained .....	15	.....	.....	45.	90.	180	90
Average obtained .....	15	.....	.....	45.	90.8	155	88
In 60 minute periods:							
Minimum required .....	12	.....	.....	18.	45.2	90	27
Maximum obtained .....	12	.....	.....	18.	90.1	180	90
Average obtained .....	12	.....	.....	18.	50.	150	90

One institution uses class periods of 70 minutes and requires 60 practice teaching periods; one institution uses class periods of 90 minutes and requires 20 practice teaching periods as a minimum, the maximum 25 periods.

periods of 90, 45, 24 and 22 class periods of teaching.

Table XVI gives further data relative to the amount of practice teaching done in the colleges of the North Central Association. The median quantity of student teaching in all the institutions:

	Length of Period	Median
Minimum require- ment .....	45 minutes	60.2 class periods
Maximum obtained....	45	70.
Average obtained....	45	54.
Minimum require- ment .....	50	40.1
Maximum obtained....	50	45.2
Average obtained....	50	40.9
Minimum require- ment .....	55 minutes	90. class periods
Maximum obtained....	55	90.
Average obtained....	55	90.8

The variations from the median amount are very great. It is generally thought by many students of teacher training that no fixed maximal or min-

imal amount should be required of all. However, when we note maxima reaching above 150 and minima as low as 10 class periods, there may be a question raised concerning the advisability of a better adjustment. Student teaching, if maintained in a training institution, should be offered only under conditions of effective supervision. In the cases of amounts in excess of 150 periods there may be a lack of proper supervision.

The standard requirement has been fixed by the American Association of State Teachers Colleges as 90 class periods. When measured by this standard, the majority of colleges fall below it.

The data in Tables XVII and XVIII indicate that there is, as yet, no strong tendency to provide student teaching in different subjects, either contemporaneously or consecutively. It is noted that 41 institutions report a median of 75 per cent of student teaching in the first and 23 per cent in the second sub-

Table XVII. Distribution of Practice Teaching Among Subjects, in Percents

	Freq.	Min.	Med.	Max.
Portion done in first subject.....	41	25	75.5	100
Portion done in second subject .....	41	5	23.4	50
Portion done in third subject .....	8	10	1.1	33

Table XVIII. Number of Colleges Which Require Practice Teaching in More Than One Subject and Arrangements for Same

	State Universities		State Teachers Colleges		Non-State Schools		Totals	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
1. Is practice teaching done in more than one subject? .....	8	20	17	9	18	23	43	52
2. Is practice teaching done consecutively in different subjects? .....	6	---	11	---	12	---	29	---
3. Is practice teaching done contemporaneously in different subjects? .....	1	---	8	---	8	---	17	---

ject. It is significant, however, that out of a total of 95 institutions reporting, 43, or about 50 per cent provide student teaching in a second subject, although comparatively in a small amount. The portion done in a third subject is almost negligible. By comparison with earlier studies, the North Central Association of Colleges show some increase in the number of institutions which are introducing the practice of providing teaching in a second subject. Since investigations have shown that a comparatively large number of high school teachers are teaching more than one subject there may be good reasons for teaching in at least two subjects. However, no definite answer can be given to this question until experimental evidence has been produced.

The data in Table XIX, representing 73 institutions, show that the median percentage of time used by student teachers in the class room of the training school is 50.8. This indicates that about one-half of the instruction of pupils in the training schools is given by student teachers. The general tendency, therefore, of the majority of the colleges is to divide the work equally between the two types

of teachers. This general tendency conforms satisfactorily with the standards fixed by the American Association of State Teachers Colleges in 1926: Two-fifths of the teaching in the training school should be done by regular teachers of the training school or by other members of the faculty. The Carnegie Foundation<sup>9</sup> report of 1920 states: "Not more than three-fourths of the instruction in the training school should be given by practice teachers; one-half would be better."

The effects of student teaching on the pupils taught is a problem which arises in many training schools and around which much discussion centers, particularly in those communities that question its efficiency. Armentrout<sup>10</sup> arrives at the following conclusion after reviewing the limited experiments to determine the effects of student teaching: "So many factors enter into this problem that it must be admitted, any final conclusion is difficult to secure and is perhaps debatable. More comparative studies involving larger numbers of

<sup>9</sup>Carnegie Bulletin, No. 14, p. 194.

<sup>10</sup>Armentrout, W. D., op. cit., p. 185.

Table XIX. Distribution of a Year's Instruction of a Given Class in the Training School (in Per Cent)

Percentages of total time for instruction used by:

	Freq.	Min.	Med.	Max.	Mode	A. D.
Practice teacher .....	73	1	50.8	100	50	15.8
Regular teacher .....	73	0	50.2	90	50	17.5

training school pupils will have to be made before we can arrive at even a tentative judgment. The evidence at the present time seems to show that the effects of student teaching, where properly supervised, are, at least, not injurious to pupils. The results of Dearborn<sup>11</sup> and the other studies do not agree; whereas, the findings of Gray,<sup>12</sup> Welborn,<sup>13</sup> and Heilman<sup>14</sup> are in complete accord, namely, the claims of superiority made by either type of school lack confirmation."

Ludeman,<sup>15</sup> in a more recent experiment involving a limited number of training pupils and public school pupils and where the training pupils were under the instruction of student teachers three-fifths of the time, concludes: "These data would warrant the conclusion that pupils do not lose by being taught by practice teachers provided the proper control of the cadet work is maintained."

## OBSERVATION.

Practically all teacher training institutions place some degree of emphasis upon observation as a method of improving student teaching. Table XX shows

the ranking given to the college in order of importance of six specific aims of observation set up as standards of purposes in this particular activity. Since no agreement is shown which would place the aims in a well defined scale according to their relative importance, only those aims which show a marked preponderance of ratings in the upper part of the scale may be noted as common to all the colleges. Only three of the six aims stand out rather prominently in the upper half of the scale:

(1) To obtain concrete illustrations of effective teaching.

(2) To experience and adopt high standards and ideas on teaching.

(3) To become familiar with the essential elements of a class exercise.

Considerable importance is given to "the ability to analyze a teaching exercise into its essential elements", since it is ranked "1" and "2" by 42 institutions. "To become familiar with class room conditions" is an aim which does not distinctly become differentiated by being ranked preponderantly in the upper end of the scale; it maintains a general level along the scale. "To learn the methods used by different teachers" is an aim to which little significance is attached by more than half of the colleges reporting. However, 6 institutions rank this aim of first importance.

It is unlikely that ratings of this type have much merit, however, the general agreement on the first three aims noted above does give some indication of uniform tendencies.

<sup>11</sup>Carnegie Bulletin, No. 14, p. 143.

<sup>12</sup>U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1917, No. 29, p. 40.

<sup>13</sup>Welborn, E. L., "Achievement Tests as Applied to Training School Pupils," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 9, 1922, p. 388.

<sup>14</sup>Heilman, J. D., "The Child's Loss Due to Student Teaching," *School and Society*, Vol. 21, 1924, pp. 291-297.

<sup>15</sup>Ludeman, W. W., "Do Pupils Lose Under Practice Teachers," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 14, 1928, p. 104.

Table XX. Number of Colleges Reporting Aims of Observation by Rank of Importance

	RANK					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
To become familiar with class room conditions.....	12	10	17	14	12	16
To learn the methods used by different teachers.....	6	12	6	9	23	15
To obtain concrete illustrations of effective teaching.....	30	14	12	8	8	9
To become familiar with the essential elements of a class exercise .....	10	16	19	27	6	2
To experience and adopt high standards and ideas of teaching .....	16	16	17	9	9	15
To acquire ability to analyze a teaching exercise into its essential elements .....	19	23	12	13	11	6

Table XXI. Observation: How Distributed; on Extra Curricular Activities

	State	Teachers	State	Total
1. Observations previous to practice teaching.....	21	21	36	78
2. Observations parallel to practice teaching.....	10	15	29	54
3. Both types of observations.....	7	11	17	35
4. Observations required on extra-curricular activities....	8	12	16	36
a. On athletic activities .....	2	7	7	16
b. On assembly periods .....	6	11	14	31
c. On other activities .....	8	4	7	19

There is no uniform plan followed by the colleges in their arrangements for observation. Table XXI shows the tendencies in the distribution of observations required.

78 colleges report observations previous to practice teaching.

54 colleges report observations parallel to practice teaching.

35 colleges report both types of observation.

The general tendency is to require observations previous to practice teaching. Practically all the colleges recognize the importance of observation as a preparation for student teaching. "To have a student begin his student teaching before he has had an opportunity to observe and study expert teaching is unjust to the student as well as the pupils. This is like placing the surgeon's knife in the hands of the medical student who has never witnessed an

operation. The principle of observation and participation in the activity being learned is most applicable to the professional preparation of teachers."<sup>16</sup>

Students should be taught how to observe or the work will lack definiteness. Preparation for observation should be made by means of conferences or outlines for guidance. An examination of the large number of mimeographed and printed forms received from the colleges in connection with the questionnaires indicates the general tendency of the training departments to provide careful guidance in the observation work. A few of the more suggestive forms are attached to the appendix of this study.

Williams<sup>17</sup> found from a nation-wide study of observation in teacher training institutions the following results for the

<sup>16</sup>Armentrout, W. D., op. cit., p. 76.

<sup>17</sup>Williams, E. I. F., "Administration of Observation in the Teacher Training Institutions of the United States," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 8, 1922, p. 331.



Table XXII. Amount of Observation Work Required

	Minimum	Maximum	Median	None	No. Colleges Report
How many class periods do you require for observation in the department in which practice teaching is done .....	6	135	18	0	84
How many of these observations are required in the same department in other schools? .....	4	30	10	25	41
How many observations do you require in departments other than the one in which they do their practice teaching?.....	4	36	9	23	53
How many observations are required in the class student is to teach prior to his taking charge? .....	3	40	13	24	83

amount of observation required in clock hours:

	Average	Median	Range
State Universities_	26.4	19	5-75
Non-state Colleges	21.6	18	12-50
Colleges .....	29.6	26	3-180
State Teachers			

Colleges..... 82.6 60 12-215

In terms of semester hours the amount ranged from none to fifteen. The average amount for Junior High School training in agricultural colleges was 1.7 semester hours; for colleges, 2.5; for state teachers colleges, 4.8. Some institutions required fifty to sixty times as much as others.

The data in Table XXIII for the colleges of the North Central Association reveal a similar variation in practices. Williams' study showed that state teachers colleges stressed observation much more than other types of colleges. This table does not report data for each type of college, however, an examination of the replies by types does indicate that state teachers colleges continue to place more emphasis upon observation than do the other groups.

From a total of 84 colleges reporting, it is noted that a median of 18 class periods is required for observation in

the department in which practice teaching is done and that 13 of the 18 are required prior to taking charge of the class. The total amount of observation required as reported by 53 colleges shows a median of 27 class periods for both types of observation.

Those colleges which give no definite figures for the amount of observation required make these types of notations: "No special number," "Observation is held at discretion of class teacher," "Varies," "No requirement, students do about 100 in the city schools," "Only a few periods of observation at the beginning," "Considerable variation," "No set number," "All this is a matter of individual needs; have outgrown the notion of trying to treat all prospective teachers alike," "Judgment of supervising teacher," "Depends on students' apparent needs."

The general tendency, therefore, of all the colleges is to maintain some system of gradual initiation into the responsibilities of teaching through either pre-teaching observation or participation. However, this study reveals a wide variation in the amount of observation required. While it is generally agreed by students of teacher training that obser-

Table XXIII. Observation Conferences:  
Their Character and Time of Holding

		Total Frequency
No. reporting conferences held after observation.....	107	111
Types: Individual .....	75	75
Group .....	91	91
Both .....	57	57
No. reporting conferences held before observation.....	96	104
Types: Individual .....	47	47
Group .....	83	83
Both .....	36	36

vation requirements should be flexible to meet individual needs of prospective teachers in training, yet the present status of the problem does warrant the need for some scientific method of setting up standards to meet some degree of uniformity commensurate to the importance of the activity.

The rate of growth and improvement of student teachers depends, in a large measure, upon the skill of the training teacher or supervisor and the amount of time at her disposal to give careful guidance through individual and group conferences to student teachers. Table XXIII indicates the following general tendencies for the character and time of holding observation conferences:

107 report conferences held *after* ob-

servation. 75 report individual conferences after observation. 91 report group conferences after observation. 57 report both types of conferences after observation.

96 report conferences held *before* observation. 47 report individual conferences before observation. 83 report group conferences before observation. 36 report both types of conferences before observation.

The general tendency is to use some form of conference; to have conferences both before and after the period of observation. About one-half of the colleges report both types of conferences held after observation; about one-third of the colleges report both types of conferences before observation.

### CHAPTER III

#### Direction and Supervision of Student Teaching

The data in Table XXIV show these tendencies:

(1) Thirty-two colleges indicate that the selection and organization of subject matter taught by the student teacher is a responsibility entirely controlled by the student teacher.

(2) In most of the other cases reported the responsibility of selecting and organizing the subject matter taught by the student teacher is exercised jointly

by the student teacher and the regular critic teacher. Other persons who assist the student teacher are: regular member of the staff of college of education, head of major department, supervisor of practice teaching, and principal of high school. These persons, rather than the regular class room teacher, exercise this function with the student teacher when they are directly supervising the practice teaching.

Table XXIV. Organization of Subject Matter Taught by Student Teachers

	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non- State Schools	Totals
1. No. colleges reporting selection and organization of subject matter taught by student teacher made:				
a. By student teacher .....	13	16	25	54
b. By some other person.....	17	17	30	64
2. Selection and organization accomplished by:				
a. Following text books .....	22	22	37	81
b. Use of Syllabi .....	17	21	25	63
c. Other methods .....	12	9	13	34
3. Aims of course and daily work of student teacher determined by:				
a. Supervisors of student teachers.....	20	24	36	80
b. Student teacher .....	4	5	8	17
c. Both .....	8	20	22	50
d. Some one else .....	4	8	5	17

There may be lack of agreement on the advisability of giving entire responsibility to the student teacher in the selection of subject matter, particularly in the early stages of practice teaching. A type of cooperation between the student teacher and the supervisor may be the better plan since it gives the practice teacher some training in this and at the same time prevents error. Selection of subject matter should have the attention of some one thoroughly competent to evaluate materials of instruction.

(3) In the selection and organization of subject matter:

(a) 26 colleges make use of text books only.

(b) 12 colleges make use of syllabi only.

(c) 70 colleges make use of a combination of text book and syllabi.

Other methods noted are: "Use contract in some subjects and organize by units," "Projects," "A highly elaborate course of study and other sources," "State course of study." The general tendency is to combine text books and syllabi in the selection and organization

of subject matter. It is encouraging to note the "breaking away" from text book domination.

(4) Aims of course and daily work of the student teacher:

(a) 38 colleges report the supervisor as having entire control.

(b) 14 colleges report the student teacher as having entire control.

(c) 59 colleges report both exercising this responsibility.

The prevailing tendency, therefore, is to have the aims of the course and the daily work of the student teacher determined by both. This plan seems the more desirable.

Whether lesson plans should be required daily or weekly, by terms, by large topics, or in any combination of these units is not so important a matter, provided that some routine of effective preparation is recognized and practiced. Lesson planning may well be graded, requiring at the outset daily plans covering small units, and progressing through definite stages to the plan that covers a relatively large unit of subject matter, the teaching of which will

Table XXV. Directing and Supervising Lesson Plans

	State Universities		State Teachers Colleges		Non-State Schools		Totals	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
1. Requirements:								
a. Is practice in plan writing a prerequisite.....	22	5	21	9	38	10	81	24
b. Are lesson plans required throughout the practice teaching period?.....	23	3	24	6	41	7	88	16
c. Is a plan required for each lesson taught?.....	18	5	19	7	30	18	67	30
d. Is the plan corrected before used?.....	22	1	27	1	36	12	85	14
2. Types of lesson plans required:								
a. Detailed .....	18		23		34		75	
b. Plans of the course.....	6		8		16		30	
c. Plans for units of work.....	21		22		29		72	
d. Other types .....	1		2		4		7	
3. Lesson plans are made by:								
a. Student teacher .....	25		23		39		87	
b. Supervisor of student teacher .....	1		1				2	
c. Both .....	6		9		6		21	

occupy several recitation periods.<sup>1</sup> It is generally agreed that an effective practice is to provide a definite period each day when the training teacher or supervisor may meet the student teacher for a conference on the lesson to be taught and when the teacher may go over with the supervisor each step in the plan. While such procedure may take more time than is used in simply reading the plan and returning with written correction, yet it is very effective in maintaining the interest of the student teacher. The time taken may be reduced as the student's skill increases.

Table XXV presents the general practice of the colleges in directing and supervising lesson plans. Of those reporting:

77 per cent require practice in plan writing as a prerequisite.

84 per cent require lesson plans throughout the teaching period.

64 per cent require plans for each lesson taught.

33 per cent require detailed lesson plans.

16 per cent require plans of the course.

28 per cent require plans for units of work.

Other types of plans specifically mentioned are: "Weekly outline of work planned," "Graduating to outlines," "A very brief summary type for part of unit to be covered on a given day," "Detailed at first. Later general outlines," "Begin with detailed plans which become more general as student teacher progresses," "Daily (sometimes), this at the direction of the critic teacher," "Each supervisor may require such lesson plans as she deems necessary and best," "Outline of main points."

Practically all colleges require the plan to be corrected before they are used.

Although no uniform practice prevails in requirement of lesson plans and types of plans, yet it is noted that all colleges place much emphasis upon this activity. It is significant to note the general tendency towards "unit" planning.

As the student teacher becomes skilled in detailed lesson planning and acquires independent ability, there is a ten-

<sup>1</sup>Carnegie Bulletin, No. 14, p. 215.



dency to permit planning by "course," "outline" and "unit" types.

The prevailing practice is to require lesson plans to be made by the student teacher. Twenty-one colleges report that the plans are made both by the student teacher and supervisor working jointly.

The Carnegie Foundation<sup>2</sup> report of 1920 recommends the careful planning of each lesson, criticized by the supervisor before it is taught. Whether lesson plans should be required daily, weekly, by terms, by large topics, or in any combination of these units is not so important a matter provided that some routine of effective preparation is recognized and practiced. The greatest care upon the part of the supervisor, however, is essential to prevent the daily planning from becoming merely perfunctory.

A big task of the training school is to teach the student to regard lesson planning as essential to good teaching. Our colleges can make a real contribution to the improvement of teaching in the public schools if teachers in training can be so impressed with the necessity and the helpfulness of writing careful lesson plans that they will, after graduating, continue to make some sort of plan for every lesson. The simpler the form of plan used in the training school, the greater the possibility of habituating students to such plan-writing as will be continued after graduation. The student should gradually learn to carry the plans in memory excepting the few details which need to be used for reference.<sup>3</sup>

The data in Table XXVI indicate that the supervising teacher is present when the student teacher teaches in 84.8 per

cent of the periods of instruction. Therefore, the general tendency is for the student teacher to be supervised rather closely while actually teaching in the class room. This is a practice which is generally followed by those training schools which emphasize careful supervision. However, it may be advisable occasionally for the supervisor to absent herself from the class room so that the student teacher may have opportunities to acquire a feeling of confidence and independence. It is observed that the non-state colleges rank the lowest in amount of time the supervisor spends in the class room while the student is teaching. This situation may be due to lack of supervisors in cases where the student teachers do all the teaching and are supervised by members on the staff of the college of education.

Stated provisions for conferences are essential elements in any program of supervision. For improving student teaching, the individual conference with the supervisor presents the most effective opportunity. Next to this may be ranked the general conference of the principal or director in which all of the student teachers and supervisors are brought together for the purposes of developing a good morale and for the purpose of making general policies better understood. Wade and Fritz<sup>4</sup> in their study report that approximately 100 per cent of the normal schools and teachers colleges provide conferences with student teachers for planning the work to be taught. They note varied practices as to the frequency and length of individual and group conferences. The more fundamental matter to be considered is

<sup>2</sup>Op. cit., p. 215.

<sup>3</sup>Armentrout, W. D., op. cit., p. 110.

<sup>4</sup>Wade, N. A., and Fritz, R. M., "Some Practices in the Administration and Supervision of Student Teaching," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 12, 1926, p. 125.

**Table XXVI. How Often the Supervising Teacher Is Present When the Student Teacher Teaches**

	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non- State Schools	Totals
Maximum time reported (in per cent of total teaching time) .....	100	100	100	100
Minimum time reported in per cent.....	10	33	10	10
Median time as calculated in per cent.....	90.09	90.1	75.6	84.8

**Table XXVII. Conferences on Practice Teaching Types, Frequency, Time of Holding, and Those in Charge**

	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non- State Schools	Totals
Types of conferences used:				
(a) General .....	24	26	42	92
(b) Individual .....	29	29	49	107
(c) Both .....	23	26	40	89
How often conferences are held:				
(a) Daily .....	13	13	20	46
(b) Weekly .....	20	26	32	78
(c) Daily and weekly .....	7	11	12	30
(d) Monthly .....	1	1	3	5
Time conferences are held:				
(a) Before class period.....	20	23	37	80
(b) After class period .....	27	28	47	102
(c) Both .....	20	23	37	80
Persons conducting conferences:				
(a) Supervising teacher .....	26	29	43	98
(b) Head of department of education.....	1	0	8	9
(c) Head of department in which teaching is done	4	8	7	19
(d) Principal of high school .....	6	8	7	21
(e) Supervising teacher and head of department of education .....	3	8	17	28

what happens in the conferences.

The data in Table XXVII show that:  
92 colleges make provision for general conferences.

107 colleges make provision for individual conferences.

89 colleges hold both types of conferences.

When measured by the types and number of conferences, the colleges of the North Central Association practice a high standard.

46 colleges report daily conferences.

78 colleges report weekly conferences.

30 colleges report daily and weekly conferences.

5 colleges report monthly conferences.

The weekly conference with the student teacher prevails over the other types. Since the individual conference offers a very effective opportunity for improving student teaching, there should be a greater frequency of daily conferences of this type. It is noted that those reporting monthly conferences indicate that these are held as general meetings in addition to the daily and weekly meetings of the supervising teacher and student teacher.

80 colleges provide conferences before the class period.

102 colleges provide conferences after the class period.

80 colleges provide conferences of both types.

If enough time is given to each of these conferences and essential items are discussed, the number of conferences reported meet a high standard and should yield effective results.

Persons conducting conferences:

98 colleges report the supervising teacher.

28 colleges report the supervising teacher and head of department.

21 colleges report the principal of the high school.

19 colleges report the head of the department in which the teaching is done.

9 colleges report the head of the department of education.

The general tendency is for the supervising teacher to conduct the conferences. The other persons mentioned are those who, in most cases, take charge of the group conferences. It is generally agreed by the students of teacher training that the teaching load of supervisors of student teaching should be so adjusted that they might have ample time to give to supervising duties.

The Carnegie Foundation Report<sup>5</sup> comments favorably upon the plan of conference found at Marysville State Teachers College, Missouri. "Each day the supervisors have two individual conferences with the student teachers, one before the lesson for the criticism of plans, and one after the lesson for a discussion of the actual work done. The director of the training department meets all of the student teachers four

times each week. Regular assignments for reading are made, and recitations and examinations are demanded. Class management, the technique of teaching, discipline, the administration of the small school, the state course of study, and similar topics were parts of the program of this general conference during the term when the school was visited. . . . In addition to these four weekly conferences, the principal of the school meets all of the student teachers and supervisors once each week in a teachers' meeting at which the general policies of the school are discussed." If the daily program of the student permits, and the supervisors' work is so arranged to give sufficient time for conference, the Marysville plan may be made most fruitful. Training institutions may well afford to give careful consideration to plans for more effective supervision of student teaching.

The data in Table XXVIII reveal three factors for discussion that predominate uniformly the three types of colleges in the conference periods with student teachers:

(1) The strong and weak points in the week's teaching.

(2) Round table discussion of teaching problems: methods of presentation, discipline, and lesson plans.

(3) Student's teaching plans criticized and suggestions made.

It is noted that considerable attention is given to demonstration lessons in the conference period. This practice obtains chiefly in the training schools which offer a limited amount of student teaching. This activity is rarely found in the colleges which offer student teaching in amounts approximating the standards heretofore noted. It is suggested that time could be economized in presenting

<sup>5</sup>Op. cit., p. 218.

Table XXVIII. Nature of Conferences on Student Teaching  
Number of Colleges Reporting Items Given Consideration

Frequencies:				
State Universities .....	29			
State Teachers Colleges .....	31			
Non-State Schools .....	54			
(a) Obtain teaching plans in advance—students' plans criticized and suggestion made.....	State Universities 25	State Teachers Colleges 26	Non-State Schools 38	Totals 89
(b) Round table discussion of teaching problems—methods of presentation, discipline, lesson plans .....	25	26	43	94
(c) Demonstration lessons .....	9	17	13	39
(d) Critical views of observations.....	21	21	35	77
(e) Strong and weak points in week's teaching discussed .....	24	28	44	96
(f) Reports on special problems studied in detail by student teachers .....	15	20	23	58
(g) Individual pupils of student and regular teachers discussed .....	17	21	37	75
(h) Routine matter for following week.....	13	20	25	58
(i) Other matters .....	4	3	7	14

routine matters for the following week by distributing to the student teachers in advance printed or mimeographed instructions for many items. An examination of the character of the items reported for conference discussion reveals the more fundamental problems involved in developing the skills of teaching.

The nature of the conference discussions as reported by the colleges in the above table are similar to the summary of some of the factors mentioned by training teachers in Armentrout's<sup>a</sup> study.

1. The training teacher discusses the pupil's reaction to the student teacher's personality and teaching.

2. A discussion of lesson plans which have been handed in, corrected and returned.

3. Discussion of specific aims for subjects the student is teaching; daily aims for specific lessons when necessary.

4. Criticism and suggestion of student teacher's selection, organization and presentation of subject matter.

5. Discussion of the children from the point of view of school management, individual differences, special needs and how to meet them.

6. Constant emphasis on the necessity of a knowledge of subject matter before attempting to impart same.

7. Constant emphasis on the necessity of self criticism.

8. The training teacher and student teacher decide on certain points which need to be improved and then a check upon these is made in a later conference.

The items mentioned under "other matters" were in most cases repetitions of the same ideas as listed in the table. Two colleges, however, noted: "Outside activities, social life," "Teaching ethics, etc."

The data in Table XXIX indicate there is a decided tendency to use a score sheet of their own; 72 per cent use their own score sheet. Parker's outline is used in 17 colleges. Others mentioned are: Blackhurst, Landsittel's Observation Record Book in the Study of Teach-

<sup>a</sup>Op. cit., p. 105.



Table XXIX. Standards for Judging the Teacher Observed

Type of Score Sheet	No. of Colleges Reporting			Totals
	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non-State Schools	
1. McMurry's Standards .....	0	3	1	4
2. Parker's Outline .....	6	4	7	17
3. Score sheet of your own .....	19	22	40	81
4. Any others .....	3	1	6	10

Table XXX. Methods of Rating Student Teachers and Persons Who Actually Rate Them

Frequencies:

State Universities .....	30				
State Teachers Colleges .....	30				
Non-State Schools .....	55				
	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non-State Schools	Totals	
1. Persons rating the student teacher:					
(a) Supervising teacher .....	27	26	43	96	
(b) Regular class-room teacher .....	20	13	30	63	
(c) Both .....	13	9	24	46	
2. Method of rating used:					
(a) Rating scales for each lesson .....	4	3	8	15	
(b) Rating scales for final judgment.....	19	19	24	62	
(c) No scale .....	9	4	15	28	
(d) Kinds of rating scales used:					
1 Their own .....	9	10	11	30	
(e) Achievement scale in specific individual abilities .....	1	5	2	8	

SCALES USED: Ohio State University, Ohio University, Johnson's, Shutte's, Burton's, Rugg's, Mead's, Boyce's, Beechel's, Pryor's.

ing, Maxwell's Observation of Teaching, Myers and Beechel and Cook's High School Observation and Practice.

The Data in Table XXX show that the student teacher is rated by:

Supervising teacher in 96 colleges.

Regular class-room teacher in 63 colleges.

Both in 46 colleges.

It should be noted that the regular class-room teacher is the same person as the supervising teacher except in some cases where the student teacher is supervised directly by a member of the college of education staff. In these instances, the member of the college staff is the supervising teacher. The general tendency, therefore, is for the student

teacher to be rated by the supervising teacher.

The methods of rating are:

62 colleges use rating scales for final judgment.

15 colleges use rating scales for each lesson.

28 colleges use no rating scales.

30 colleges use their own rating scales.

The general tendency is to use rating scales to determine the ability of student teachers. In comparison with earlier studies of student teaching, this study shows a rapid increase in number of colleges which use rating scales. Many of the colleges complied with the request to send samples of score cards or rating schemes which they use. A study

## Score Card "A"

Student Teacher		Subject and Grade Taught		
Major	1st or 2nd Quarter	College Class	Score	Grade
Achievement Test Score.....	Mental Score.....	Eng. 4 Test.....		

Training Teacher	Date
I. Personal equipment	6. Forcefulness
1. Appearance	7. Resourcefulness
2. Voice	8. Use of English
3. Courtesy	9. Knowledge
4. Dependability	10. Profession habits
5. Openmindedness	a. Co-operation
	b. Ability in self-criticism
II. Teaching Technique	
1. Attention to physical features.	
2. Care of material.	
3. Preparation and organization of subject matter.	
4. Skills in:	
a. Arousing and holding interest.	
b. Stimulating pupil activity.	
c. Questioning.	
d. Use of illustrative material.	
e. Recognizing and providing for individual differences.	
f. Preparing and using drill material.	
g. Review.	
h. Testing and grading.	
5. Ability to control.	
6. Pupil achievement.	
a. Knowledge and skills.	
b. Desirable habits and attitudes.	

+indicates strongest points; —indicates weakest points.

A grade of "C" is average.

## NUMERICAL VALUES ASSIGNED TO GRADES

A+ approximates 98	B approximates 85	C— approximates 72
A approximates 95	B— approximates 82	D+ approximates 68
A— approximates 92	C+ approximates 78	D approximates 65
B+ approximates 88	C approximates 75	D— approximates 62
		F Less than 61

of these rating scales reveals the qualities of teaching merit which are considered in measuring the progress of student teachers. Practically all the rating cards may be classified into two distinct types:

*Type One*, the more recent development, has the following distinct characteristics:

1. Makes use of pupil achievement.

2. A decreasing number of qualities or traits to be measured.

3. Makes provisions for numerical ratings.

4. Specifies ability in self-criticism.

5. Some tendency to give specific meanings to traits or abilities.

*Type Two*, representing the older tendencies, has the following characteristics:

# Score Card "B" STUDENT-TEACHER RATING CARD

Name..... Class Hour.....  
Subject..... Class.....

## RATING

I. Scholarship .....	poor, fair, good, excellent
II. Technique .....	poor, fair, good, excellent
III. Personality .....	poor, fair, good, excellent
IV. Character .....	poor, fair, good, excellent
V. Tact .....	poor, fair, good, excellent
VI. Professional Interest .....	poor, fair, good, excellent
VII. Social Qualities .....	poor, fair, good, excellent
VIII. Ability to get along with superiors and co-workers.....	poor, fair, good, excellent
IX. Interest in the community.....	poor, fair, good, excellent
X. Discipline .....	poor, fair, good, excellent
XI. Industry .....	poor, fair, good, excellent
XII. Personal Appearance .....	poor, fair, good, excellent
XIII. Temperament .....	Cheerful, pessimistic, bouyant, subdued, faultfinding, inspiring, depressing
XIV. Potentialities of Growth.....	poor, fair, good, excellent
XV. Initiative .....	poor, fair, good, excellent
XVI. General Rank of Candidate.....	poor, fair, good, excellent
Date .....	Signed.....

Critic Teacher.

1. A large number of specific qualities or traits.

2. Omission of qualities 2, 3, 4, and 5 in Type One.

3. More subjective than Type One.

"The rating of student teachers will always be more reliable if based upon several independent judgments, rather than upon the judgment of one training teacher. Refined judgments by classifying persons in five groups, or assigning points on a scale, are not absolutely required, especially in the work of a training school. After all, the practical need is: In what traits is the teacher conspicuously deficient? Which ones should be consciously developed—which ones suppressed? A superintendent wants to know definite facts about a teacher: 'Is he loyal?' 'Does he work well with others?' 'Can he discipline?' 'Is he tactful?' 'Does he have a grasp of his subject matter?' "

Although rating scales have serious limitations as measuring instruments for determining teaching ability, yet much improvement has been made in recent years in technique of their construction. A scientific job analysis of student teaching similar to those which have been made in industry would identify specific individual abilities in successful teaching. With these abilities discovered in the activities, a more reliable measuring instrument could be constructed. Two copies of rating cards are exhibited here to represent the types described above. Score Card A represents Type One; Score Card B represents Type Two. The rating card used by Ohio Wesleyan University and prepared by Dr. A. R. Mead presents many features of an attractive character. Although it is rather long and detailed, yet it illustrates the objective type in a high degree.

<sup>7</sup>Armentrout, W. D., op. cit., pp. 181-182.

## CHAPTER IV

## Summary

## ARRANGEMENTS FOR ADMINISTRATION OF PRACTICE TEACHING.

The total number of institutions affiliated with the North Central Association as reported June, 1927, was 217. Of this number 159 colleges report provision of facilities for student teaching on the secondary level. Data for this study were obtained from 119 institutions, or about 70 per cent of the total 159 offering student teaching for secondary teachers.

1. Types of training schools used by the colleges: (105 reporting)

29 per cent of the colleges use only the one type owned by them.

58 per cent of the colleges use only type 2, public high school.

54 per cent of the colleges use both types, public and college owned.

The general tendency is for the student teaching to be done in public high schools cooperating with the colleges.

2. State teachers colleges and state universities own and control a much larger number of campus training schools than non-state colleges do.

3. In type of organization of the high school, the four-year type (9-12) predominates over any other one classification, and constitutes 32 per cent of the total organized training schools. The more recent types of high school organization are rapidly finding a place in the training institutions, the evidence of which is shown by the fact that 68 per cent of the training schools are Junior High, Senior High, and Junior-Senior High.

4. Where public high schools are used for training purposes, about 50 per cent of the colleges assist in financing

the salaries of the regular teachers. There are many varied practices in the plans of financing. About 36 per cent of the colleges reporting exercise some control in the selection of the regular teachers of the public high school used for training purposes.

5. Out of 81 replying, 57 colleges express a preference for training schools owned and controlled exclusively by the college. A public high school is preferred by 24 colleges. The smaller colleges with a limited number of student teachers find a campus training school too expensive to support.

6. A more or less definite combination of supervising agencies direct the student teaching in a public high school. Direct and personal supervision is exercised in most cases by the regular high school teacher who acts as critic teacher with different members of the college of education staff assisting. Only a few colleges, those of the non-state type chiefly, use members of the academic department of the college to supervise student teaching. In the training high school owned and controlled exclusively by the college, the heads of the department of education exercise general supervision most frequently. Other persons in the order of their relative frequencies are: director of training school, principal of high school, dean of the college of education, professor of secondary education, supervisors of departments, supervisor of critic teachers, and superintendent of the training school.

7. Supervision of instruction in general of the training school is exercised by the following persons in the order of frequencies reported: principal of



high school, head of department of education, dean of the college of education, and director of the training school. Administrative control of the training school owned by the university is exercised by the principal or some member of the regular staff of the college of education. A greater number of frequencies is reported for a staff member.

8. Staff of the training school owned and controlled by the university:

(a) The training school teachers are members of the college of education staff in 74 per cent of a total of 47 such schools.

(b) In 69 per cent of these types of training schools, the training school staff members are teaching professional courses in the college of education. The courses taught by the training school teachers are confined chiefly to methods courses.

(c) For both types of training schools: (89 colleges reporting)

37 per cent of the colleges require a master's degree as the minimum academic qualification.

63 per cent of the colleges require a bachelor's degree as the minimum academic qualification.

Since 28 colleges make no report on this item, it is assumed that some permit a lower standard.

An examination of special notations indicates that there is a general tendency of all colleges to move in the direction of the higher standard.

(d) The average number of semester hours of education for all colleges reporting is 19.9. It is generally agreed that this amount conforms to a fair standard.

(e) The average number of hours required in the academic subject taught by the training teachers for all colleges

reporting is 23.4. The maximum, 50, is too high; the minimum, 10, is too low. A standard requirement of 30-40 semester hours meets the more recent measure in the revised curricula for teacher training institutions.

9. The number of student teachers assigned for supervision to each member of the college of education staff of the university high school ranges from:

0 to 25 to be supervised by college of education staff.

0 to 35 assigned to each member of the staff.

Nineteen colleges have an assignment of 2 to 12 student teachers for each staff member. In training schools where the student teachers are supervised directly by members of the high school staff, no data are available from which to determine the number assigned to each. Since many of the colleges have the training school staff to act as critic teachers, an examination of the number of training teachers on the staff and the number of student teachers enrolled indicates reasonable facilities for supervision.

From the data on 32 colleges operating only campus training schools, 19 colleges show a deficiency in number of pupils in the training school based upon minimal standards. Data obtained from a supplementary questionnaire reveal that colleges using public high schools have a standard ratio of pupils to student teachers.

#### ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDENT TEACHING GROUP.

1. The prevalent tendency is to select student teachers from groups of students who have had three or more years of college training. Selection from the fourth year predominates.

2. There is a strong tendency for the department of education to be the controlling factor in the selection of student teachers.

3. Familiarity with the subject to be taught, moral status, scholastic rank and physical status, in the order named, are the predominating factors considered in the selection of student teachers.

4. An average requirement of approximately 12 hours of education is asked of students before they are assigned to practice teaching. An average of a little over 16 hours is the amount usually earned by students before beginning practice teaching. The range, however, is from 2 hours to 47 hours.

5. The most frequent prerequisite courses in professional subjects are: Educational psychology, general psychology, principles of teaching in high schools, special methods and principles of education. The minimum credit required in each subject ranges from 1 to 2 hours; the maximum credit ranges from 4 to 6 hours in each subject.

6. A range of credit for practice teaching from 2 hours to 10 hours is found to exist. Three, four or five hours in the order named is the credit allowance in the largest number of colleges. Ten institutions, however, allow ten hours credit while another ten allow two and a half hours or less. The average amount for all colleges is 3.27 hours.

7. The number of class periods of practice teaching required for 1 semester hour of credit varies as follows:

In 45 minute periods:

Average obtained in state universities, 15 periods.

Average obtained in state teachers colleges, 24 periods.

Average obtained in non-state colleges, 18 periods.

In 50 minute periods:

Average obtained in state universities, 18 periods.

Average obtained in state teachers colleges, 24 periods.

Average obtained in non-state colleges, 20 periods.

A few colleges require a maximum ranging from 36 periods to 90 periods.

8. The amount of practice teaching required of each student teacher varies from 1800 minutes (20 90-minute periods) to 4200 minutes (60 70-minute periods). The median for the average in 45-minute classes in 54 periods (2430 minutes); in 50-minute classes, 40.9 periods (2208 minutes); in 55-minute classes, 90.8 periods (4994 minutes). The standard requirement fixed by Carnegie Foundation is 90 periods of 45 minutes (4050 minutes).

9. Three student teachers out of four do practice teaching in only one subject. The other one usually has experience in two subjects, rarely in three. Over half the colleges reporting plan for practice teaching in but one subject. Relatively few student teachers get experience teaching groups sectioned according to ability.

10. In some training schools, the student teacher teaches 100 per cent of the time devoted to instruction in a given class. In others she teaches but 10 per cent of the time. The median for 73 colleges reporting is 50.8 per cent of the time.

11. In observation, the aims regarded as most important by the largest number of colleges as determined by the rank given them are in order named:

1. To obtain concrete illustrations of effective teaching.

2. To experience and adopt high standards and ideals of teaching.

3. To acquire ability to analyze a teaching exercise into its essential elements.

12. The larger number of colleges provide for observation work previous to practice teaching. About one-half of the colleges have student teachers observe both before practice teaching and parallel to practice teaching. A little more than one-third of the colleges require some types of extra-curricular activities to be observed.

13. The amount of observation required in the department in which practice teaching is done ranges from 6 periods to 135 periods. The median is 18 periods. In departments other than the one in which the practice teaching is done the amount of observation asked ranges from 4 periods to 36 periods with a median of 9 periods. Practically all the colleges require some observation before the student actually takes charge of a class.

14. All the institutions require conferences, both individual and group, to be held before and after observations.

#### DIRECTION AND SUPERVISION OF STUDENT TEACHING

1. The selection and organization of subject matter taught by the student teacher is made:

(a) In 73 per cent of the colleges by the critic teacher or by some member of the college of education who is directly supervising the student teaching.

(b) In 27 per cent of the colleges the student teacher has entire control in the selection and organization of the subject matter she teaches.

2. The traditional practice of following text books in the selection and organization of subject matter exists in the larger number of training institutions. Six-

ty-three colleges report the use of syllabi and printed courses of study. A tendency is developing toward the use of syllabi.

3. The supervisor of student teaching or some other member of the education staff who is directly supervising the student teacher determines in most cases the aims of the course and daily work of practice teaching. The student teacher receives experience in this activity in about one-half of the colleges.

4. About 77 per cent of the colleges require practice in plan writing as a prerequisite. This is usually offered in connection with the work of some professional subject. A strong tendency prevails to retain the requirement of lesson plans throughout the practice teaching period, but as skill is acquired in detailed plans, to permit briefer outlines. These plans are corrected before used.

5. The old formal lesson plan is being replaced by the newer types, plan of course and plan for units of work. Seventy-two institutions report the use of plans for units of work.

6. Student teachers, in practically 100 per cent of the colleges, are held responsible for their own lesson plans.

7. The median amount of time that the supervising teacher is present when the student teacher teaches is 84.8 per cent. A minimum of 10 per cent is reported by 10 institutions. Close supervision is the prevailing practice.

8. Both individual and general conferences are used in 77 per cent of the training departments. Individual conferences are held in 92 per cent of the colleges.

78 institutions provide weekly conferences.

46 institutions provide daily conferences.

30 institutions provide daily and weekly conferences.

102 colleges report conferences held after class periods.

80 colleges report conferences held before class periods.

80 colleges report conferences held both before and after class periods.

As a rule the individual conferences of the student teacher are held with the supervising teacher. The directing member of the college of education staff conducts the general group conferences when the policies of the training school are presented.

9. In reporting the nature of the conferences, the greatest emphasis is placed upon criticisms of student teaching, criticisms of lesson plans, critical views of observations made, and special reports of student teachers. Demonstration lessons are presented in some instances.

10. All the training institutions recognize the need of having student teachers use standard for judging the teaching observed. The prevailing practice is to use score sheets of their own.

11. Student teachers are given systematic rating in all colleges. The person who has direct supervision of the student teacher makes the ratings. In some few cases, judgments of all who have observed the student teacher are used. A majority of the colleges make use of rating scales to determine the rank of student teachers. There is a growing tendency to use their own scales. Only in a few colleges are rating scales used for each lesson.

#### SUGGESTED PROBLEMS FOR RESEARCH

The many varied practices in the field of teacher training as revealed by this study suggest the need of further re-

search and investigation to establish experimental evidence for the most economical and successful procedure in student teaching. To show the status of student teaching, a sufficient number of studies have been made during the past fifteen years to emphasize the more urgent need for breaking up the generalized findings into the more specific and well defined problems.

A summary of this study suggests a large number of specific investigations which should be made for the purpose of determining methods of teacher training based upon scientific experimentation. The list which follows includes both some of those reported by the research committee<sup>1</sup> of the National Society of College Teachers of Education and some by the writer.

1. A diagnosis and evaluation of the laboratory work of teacher preparation.

2. An evaluation of distributed versus concentrated practice teaching.

3. Scientific determination of the value of different plans of student teaching, e. g., Wisconsin plan, Cincinnati plan, Ohio Wesleyan plan, University of Chicago plan, etc.

4. Character, content and amount of prerequisite courses for student teaching.

5. Investigation to determine the relative efficiency of teachers now in service who have had student teaching as compared with those teachers similarly situated now in service who have not had student teaching.

6. The conference in supervised student teaching.

7. The student teacher's load of work.

<sup>1</sup>"List of Possible Studies and Researches in Various Types of Laboratory Work in Preparation of Teachers, Supervisors and School Administrators," *Journal of Educational Research*, June, 1925, pp. 76-78.



8. Determination of qualifications of supervising teachers.
9. An analysis of the activities in pre-teaching period of student teacher.
10. An analysis of the teaching activities of the most successful supervising teachers.
11. An evaluation of various types of lesson plans.
12. Evaluation of results in observation of teaching.
13. Comparative studies of two distinct types of teacher preparation.
14. Student teaching in the campus training school versus that in the public training school.
15. Selection of the student teacher.
16. Determination of the most effective place in the course to start student teaching.
17. Determination of the number of subjects which should be taught by the student teacher.
18. Classroom organization best adapted for student teaching.
19. Determination of preparation needed by supervising teacher.
20. Development of plans for demonstration teaching.
21. Agencies, methods, and results of securing changed public opinion in reference to supervised student-teaching.
22. A job activity and difficulty analysis of all phases of the teaching process to determine the desired outcomes in terms of the professional students' further needs.
23. A classification and organization of these activities for learning purposes.
24. Determination of objective means of securing a composite measure of all the outcomes of instruction in estimating the efficiency of teachers.
25. Observation as a factor in student teacher improvement.
26. Standard for establishing co-operative arrangements with public schools whereby they may be made available for training purposes.
27. An analysis of the supervisory functions of a teacher training department.
28. Pupil achievement as a measure of student teaching efficiency and growth.
29. A determination of the most effective apportionment of time for theory and for practice in the training of teachers.
30. Types of organization for the college of education and the training school in the administration and supervision of practice teaching.

## APPENDIX

### Summary of Tables in Appendix

1. About 90 per cent of the colleges give credit for practice teaching toward requirements for degrees. Two kinds of degrees in Education are conferred, Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Science in Education.

2. The minimum average credits for practice teaching in first subject taught by student teachers is 3.3 semester hours.

The maximum average is 5.3 semester hours. State Teachers Colleges are granting more credits for student teaching than other types of institutions.

The data reveal a median of 23.4 per cent of teaching done in a second subject. Only eight colleges report teaching done in a third subject.

Relatively few student teachers get

experience teaching groups sectioned according to ability since there are but few training classes sectioned on basis of ability.

3. Frequency of reports required of practice teachers:

48 colleges require daily reports.

44 colleges require weekly reports.

16 colleges require both daily and weekly reports.

15 colleges require monthly reports.

There is a uniform requirement for some type of report from practice teachers, varying in frequency. The most frequent plan is to have these reports made to the critic teachers.

4. From a report made by 84 colleges, it is noted that the median per cent of student teachers failing to receive a passing grade is 3.1. The maximum per cent ranges from 10 to 15.

5. Fifty-six per cent of the colleges give grades or ratings to student teachers throughout the course.

6. The position of special methods courses in relation to practice teaching found:

In 62 colleges paralleling practice teaching.

In 31 colleges preceding practice teaching.

The persons most frequently reported teaching these courses are in the order named: college of education instructor, arts college instructor, critic teacher, and principal of training school.

7. In observing teaching, the activities regarded as most important by the largest number of colleges as determined by the amount of emphasis placed upon them by the institution are, in the order named:

a. Studying the teacher-personality, methods, and discipline.

b. Studying assignment of lessons.

c. Studying of pupils in class.

Other colleges rank these activities as low as ninth or tenth. Eight other activities are mentioned by 23 colleges as the most important activity in observing instruction. Library management, seating pupils, and heating and ventilation are typical of other activities regarded as most important by some institutions.

8. Most schools agree that the most important activity of the student teacher, as judged by the amount of time devoted to it, is class teaching. A second important activity is lesson plan preparation, another, individual and group conferences with supervisors. Supervising of study gets a scattering vote. Preparation of subject matter receives considerable attention.

9. The activities emphasized in apprentice work before actual teaching begins are ranked in the order of importance, as follows:

a. Keeping records.

b. Making reports.

c. Planning course.

d. Regulating hygienic conditions.

Relatively little attention is given to extra-curricular activities.

10. In routine work of practice teaching the activities which are listed as occurring most frequently are: giving individual help, grading work and keeping record of grades, studying teachers' system grading and reading papers.

11. The colleges are almost a unit in their opinion that teacher training rather than experimental work is the chief function of the training school.

12. The median salary of the high school principal of the university training school is \$3101; the median of the minimum salary of the training school teacher

is \$1878; the median of the maximum salary of the training teacher is \$2583.

13. The most pressing problems of the training schools are many and varied. The following problems are reported most frequently:

- a. Lack of well trained supervisors.
- b. To arrange for more actual teaching by practice teachers without injury to pupils.
- c. Better organization of prerequisite educational courses.
- d. Development of student ability to organize on pupil level subject matter used.
- e. To get a suitable building for university training school.
- f. How to measure results; lack of scientific data is almost complete.
- g. A larger training school; more training school pupils.
- h. Integration of practice activities with theory.
- i. Need objective data to show worth of practice teaching.
- j. Adequate facilities.
- k. Securing uniformity of practice among critic teachers.
- l. Better control of the training school supervisor in the public school.

m. To secure a larger per cent of "red blooded" men to enter the teaching profession.

n. The building of a continuous curriculum for the student of practice teaching.

o. Adequate training of extra-mural critics.

p. A satisfactory adjustment of the teaching load of the supervising teacher to give ample time to supervision of practice teaching.

q. Adjustment of student teachers' schedules so that sufficient time can be given to practice teaching work.

r. To determine just what are the activities of the student teacher which contribute most to her training.

s. How to carry on experimental work.

t. A standardized contractual relation with public school where teaching is done.

An analysis of these needs indicate that the colleges are keenly sensing some of the fundamental issues involved in their training departments. This field of education presents rich opportunities for constructive research and experimental investigation.

Table XXXI. Number of Colleges Giving Credit for Practice Teaching Towards Requirements for Degrees

	State Universities		State Teachers Colleges		Non-State Schools		Totals	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Practice teaching credited toward requirements for a degree .....	23	2	27	...	35	8	85	10
1. The B. A. degree.....	16	7	14	2	32	14	62	23
2. Degree in education.....	17	1	21	1	12	7	50	9

Table XXXII. Credits for Practice Teaching (in Semester Hours)  
in Subjects Taught by Student Teachers

Frequencies :					
State Universities .....	21				
State Teachers Colleges.....	20				
Non-State Institutions .....	34	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non-State Schools	Totals
First Subject:					
(a) Minimum .....	Average	3.3	3.5	3.2	3.3
	Range	2-5	1.2-10	1-5	1-10
(b) Maximum .....	Average	5.2	5.9	3.9	5.3
	Range	3-8	2.5-15	3-6	2.5-15

Table XXXIII. The Extent of Student Teaching in More Than One  
Section Where Classes in the Training School Are  
Sectioned According to Ability

No. reporting:				
State Universities .....	12			
State Teachers Colleges .....	21			
Non-State Schools .....	21			
	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non-State Schools	Totals
Number of colleges where practice teacher teaches in more than one section.....	3	13	8	24

Table XXXIV. Frequency of Reports Required of Practice Teachers;  
Persons to Whom Made

	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non-State Schools	Totals
Number of colleges reporting.....	21	22	36	79
(a) Daily reports required .....	14	13	21	48
(b) Weekly reports required .....	10	13	21	44
(c) Daily and weekly (both) .....	4	5	7	16
(d) Monthly reports required.....	4	6	5	15
(e) Person to whom report is made: .....	F15	F17	F27	F59
Critic teacher .....	11	11	10	32
Director of Teacher Training.....	3	3	6	12
Principal of Training School.....	1	2	1	4
Head of Department in which teaching is done .....	---	---	4	4
Head of Department of Education.....	---	---	6	6

Table XXXV. Per Cent of Student Teachers Who Fail to Receive  
A Passing Grade in Student Teaching

	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non-State Schools	Totals
Number of colleges reporting, 84				
Per cent of student teachers failing to receive a pass- ing grade:				
Minimum .....	0	1	0	0
Maximum .....	10	10	15	15
Median .....	3.5	3.3	2.8	3.1



Table XXXVI. Plans for Giving Student Teachers Grades or Ratings

	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non- State Schools	Totals
Total Frequencies: .....	104			
Number of colleges reporting giving grades or ratings at intervals throughout the course.....	12	20	27	59
Number of colleges not giving grades or ratings at intervals throughout the course .....	14	8	23	45

Table XXXVII. Special Methods Courses:  
Distribution and By Whom Taught

	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non- State Schools	Totals
I. No. colleges reporting:				
Special methods courses:				
Paralleling practice teaching.....	16	19	27	62
Preceding practice teaching.....	4	5	22	31
II. No. colleges reporting methods courses taught by:				
Critic teachers .....	12	12	6	30
Colleges of education instructor .....	17	15	41	73
Arts college instructor .....	12	10	25	47
Principal of training school.....	2	5	3	10
Other persons .....	2	5	7	14

Table XXXVIII. Activities of the Student Teacher in Observation in Order of Emphasis Placed Upon Them By Colleges Reporting

	Rank													
NUMBER OF COLLEGES REPORTING:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Seating of children.....	5	0	1	2	2	3	3	14	4	4	2	2	1	1
Economical routine .....	1	3	4	9	7	15	4	7	2	2	1	....	....	....
Ventilating and heating.....	3	5	....	4	5	11	5	11	2	5	....	....	....	....
Sanitation and hygiene.....	1	4	1	2	5	11	8	6	7	2	1	....	....	....
Decorations of school room.....	....	....	2	1	....	2	2	4	5	5	8	4	8	3
Acting as assistant to school physician .....	....	....	....	1	....	....	1	1	....	2	6	8	3	8
Studying of teachers — personality, methods of instruction, discipline.....	31	9	11	7	3	1	2	1	2	1	....	....	....	....
Studying rolls of attendance and punctuality .....	2	....	1	2	3	2	4	4	6	3	4	5	3	1
Study of pupils in class.....	16	26	10	6	6	1	....	1	....	1	....	....	....	....
Assignment of lessons.....	18	15	16	13	8	3	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....
Questions asked .....	4	15	9	19	11	6	....	1	1	1	....	1	....	....
Supervised study and individual instruction .....	6	5	15	9	17	3	4	3	2	....	....	....	....	1
Study of library management.....	1	1	....	2	....	2	2	5	6	6	3	8	2	....
Study of standard tests and measurements and examinations .....	....	1	2	3	2	9	9	3	1	4	4	4	2	2

Table XXXIX. Rank of Activities of the Student Teacher in Practice Teaching Course Based on Time Devoted to Each Activity Per Week

	Ranking											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
NUMBER OF COLLEGES REPORTING:												
Observation .....	8	12	4	6	7	6	4	2	3	1	1	....
Class Teaching .....	44	18	4	1	1	....	1	....	....	....	....	....
Teaching individual pupils .....	1	3	11	4	6	5	6	5	5	5	1	....
Assisting in laboratory .....	1	1	1	1	1	3	6	7	10	6	....	....
Supervising study .....	0	7	7	9	3	7	2	5	4	1	3	....
Preparation of lesson plans.....	8	14	18	7	8	5	1	2	....	....	....	....
Grading papers .....	1	1	6	5	8	7	10	7	5	3	1	....
Preparation of subject matter.....	7	6	4	6	3	5	2	2	....	....	....	....
Individual conference with supervisor .....	....	1	3	15	11	8	6	6	6	....	1	....
Group conference with supervisor.....	....	1	6	6	8	8	5	4	3	6	2	....
Assigned professional reading.....	....	....	1	3	4	4	7	6	2	3	14	....

Table XL. Activities Which Are Emphasized in Order of Importance in Preliminary Apprentice Work Before Actual Teaching Begins

	RANK								Total Freq.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
Keeping records .....	9	7	17	11	13	5	....	....	62
Making reports .....	6	8	13	17	10	5	1	1	51
Regulating hygienic conditions .....	5	16	16	6	5	5	4	1	58
Seating of class .....	6	7	10	7	12	5	3	3	53
Paper correcting .....	3	9	4	7	3	5	....	1	32
Planning course .....	43	1	8	4	1	4	2	1	64
Assisting in assemblies .....	1	1	....	1	1	6	15	3	28
Assisting in dramatics .....	....	....	3	2	....	1	6	14	26

Table XLI. Items of Routine Work Required Most in Order of Occurrence in Practice Teaching

	RANK									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Giving individual help .....	55	10	9	1	1	4	....	....	....	....
Presiding over study hall.....	1	2	7	3	2	2	4	6	5	7
Grading work and keeping record of grades.....	11	27	13	12	8	1	....	2	2	....
Physical condition of room .....	5	9	9	7	11	5	7	6	2	....
Studying teachers system of grading and reading papers .....	4	13	13	9	8	8	3	2	2	....
Absence and tardiness .....	4	3	10	5	6	9	10	5	4	1
Preparing sample exam. questions.....	1	5	7	14	3	7	5	9	5	1
Collecting papers .....	5	1	6	10	7	8	5	8	7	3
Collecting and examining notebooks.....	4	2	6	7	13	6	9	5	6	3
Assisting with demonstrations .....	2	6	4	5	6	4	9	1	4	8

Table XLII. Chief Functions of the Training School

	State Universities	State Teachers Colleges	Non- State Schools	Totals
NUMBER COLLEGES REPORTING:				
a. Teacher training functions (methods courses, observation and practice teaching) .....	18	27	38	83
b. Experimental function (development of courses organization of materials, research) .....	4	0	5	9
c. Both .....	1	0	0	1

Table XLIII. Salaries Paid Per Year for Staff of Training School Owned and Controlled Exclusively by the College or University

Principal of High School		Teachers of Training School			
Salary	Freq.	Minimum Salaries	Freq.	Maximum Salaries	Freq.
\$5,000	4	\$2,600	1	\$4,250	1
4,800	1	2,500	2	4,000	3
4,500	2	2,400	1	3,200	1
4,140	1	2,300	1	3,100	1
4,000	3	2,270	1	3,000	3
3,850	1	2,200	1	2,900	1
3,700	1	2,160	1	2,800	3
3,600	2	2,100	2	2,700	3
3,500	2	2,000	7	2,520	1
3,400	2	1,900	2	2,500	5
3,200	3	1,800	7	2,400	6
3,100	3	1,650	2	2,280	1
3,000	9	1,600	7	2,200	1
2,835	1	1,500	5	2,100	5
2,820	1	1,400	2	2,000	4
2,750	1	1,260	1	1,650	1
2,725	1	-----	--	-----	--
2,600	1	-----	--	-----	--
2,500	1	-----	--	-----	--
2,400	2	-----	--	-----	--
2,200	2	-----	--	-----	--
2,100	1	-----	--	-----	--
1,800	1	-----	--	-----	--
46			43		43

INSTITUTIONS INCLUDED IN  
SURVEY

- University of Minnesota.
- Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts.
- University of North Dakota.
- North Dakota Agricultural College.
- South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts.
- University of Wisconsin.
- University of Kansas.

- University of Michigan.
- Kansas State Agricultural College.
- University of Colorado.
- Northwestern University.
- University of Missouri.
- University of New Mexico.
- University of Wyoming.
- Ohio State University.
- Colorado Agricultural College.
- University of Oklahoma.
- West Virginia University.

19. University of Illinois.
20. Indiana University.
21. Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.
22. University of Arkansas.
23. New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts.
24. Purdue University.
25. University of South Dakota.
26. Montana State University.
27. Ohio University.
28. University of Arizona.
29. University of Nebraska.
30. West Virginia Collegiate Institute.
31. New Mexico Normal University.
32. North Eastern State Teachers College, Oklahoma.
33. Illinois State Normal University.
34. South West Missouri State Teachers College.
35. Central Missouri State Teachers College.
36. Iowa State Teachers College.
37. Central State Teachers College, Oklahoma.
38. Superior State Normal School.
39. Indiana State Normal.
40. Eastern Illinois State Teachers College.
41. Western State College of Colorado.
42. Western State Normal School, Michigan.
43. New Mexico State Teachers College.
44. State Teachers College, Valley City, North Dakota.
45. Nebraska State Normal College, Chadron.
46. Central Michigan Normal School.
47. Northwestern State Teachers College, Oklahoma.
48. Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia.
49. Eastern State Teachers College.
50. State Teachers College, Kirksville, Missouri.
51. Detroit Teachers College.
52. Western Illinois Teachers College.
53. Colorado State Teachers College.
54. Kent State Normal College.
55. Kansas State Teachers College, Hays.
56. South East Missouri State Teachers College.
57. Nebraska State Teachers College, Kearney.
58. Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg.
59. Ball State Teachers College, Indiana.
60. Cleveland School of Education.
61. Lincoln University, Jefferson City, Missouri.
62. Lake Erie College.
63. Hope College.
64. Bradley Polytechnic Institute.
65. Wittenberg College.
66. Marietta College.
67. Beloit College.
68. Phillips University.
69. Marygrove College.
70. Kenyon College.
71. Oberlin College.
72. Carroll College.
73. Wabash College.
74. University of Cincinnati.
75. West Virginia Wesleyan College.
76. Drury College.
77. Miami University.
78. Augustana College.
79. University of Wichita.
80. Western College for Women.
81. Yankton College.
82. Gustavus Adolphus College.
83. Huron College.
84. Oklahoma College for Women.
85. MacAlester College.
86. Bethany College.
87. University of Akron.
88. Ohio Wesleyan.
89. St. Olaf College.
90. Hiram College.
91. Hanover College.
92. Grinnell College.
93. Franklin College.
94. St. Benedict's College.
95. Notre Dame University.
96. Monmouth College.
97. Nebraska Wesleyan University.
98. Wooster College.
99. Otterbein College.
100. Dennison University.
101. Park College.
102. St. Xavier College.
103. Antioch College.
104. Mt. Union College.
105. Baldwin-Wallace College.
106. Illinois College.



107. Hastings College.
  108. Earlham College.
  109. North Central College.
  110. University of Denver.
  111. Marquette University.
  112. De Pauw University.
  113. Luther College.
  114. Creighton University.
  115. Concordia College.
  116. St. Mary's College.
  117. University of Chicago.
- Two unidentified state teachers colleges.

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# Seven Years' Change in the Curriculum of the Junior College

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A previous report<sup>1</sup> has given the development in the stated purposes of junior college work during the last seven years. A comparison checking, and perhaps more significant, will show just how these new objectives are appearing in concrete course content.

Representative groups of public<sup>2</sup> and private<sup>3</sup> junior colleges have been taken for this analysis. It will be seen that they are located in eighteen different states from Connecticut to Washington and from Minnesota to Louisiana. The fifteen public institutions are found in seven states, nearly half of them in California where the public junior college has reached its highest point of efficiency as an integral part of the state public school system. The fifteen private colleges are taken from fifteen separate

states. The sampling is adequate to show present tendencies. Furthermore, care has been taken to select institutions in which curriculum aims are on the whole liberal, including none of the fourteen out of a total 382 junior colleges which may be classed as vocational. However, it will be seen in the following tables that certain rather specifically occupational purposes, other than further college work, are indicated in certain subject groups.

As in the report on shift of purposes, comparison here is made with data gathered by Koos<sup>4</sup> for the year 1922. So far as possible, a similar technic of analysis and tabulation is used so that figures may be logically paralleled. Four bases for classification of material have been taken; the average number of semester

<sup>1</sup>Whitney, F. L. "Seven Years' Development in Junior College Purposes." *The North Central Quarterly*, Vol. III, pp. 289-297 (September, 1928).

<sup>2</sup>Public junior colleges: (1) Brawley Union High School and Junior College, Brawley, California; (2) Central Union Junior College, El Centro, California; (3) Citrus Junior College, Azusa, California; (4) Marin Union Junior College, Kentfield, California; (5) Palo Alto Junior College, Palo Alto, California; (6) Porterville Junior College, Porterville, California; (7) San Mateo Junior College, San Mateo, California; (8) Estherville Junior College, Estherville, Iowa; (9) Arkansas City Junior College, Arkansas City, Kansas; (10) Muskegon Junior College, Muskegon, Michigan; (11) Port Huron Junior College, Port Huron, Michigan; (12) Itasca Junior College, Coleraine, Minnesota; (13) Rochester Junior College, Rochester, Minnesota; (14) Moberly Junior College, Moberly, Missouri; (15) Cen-

tralia Junior College, Centralia, Washington.

<sup>3</sup>Private junior colleges: (1) Mountain Home College, Mountain Home, Arkansas; (2) Cummock School, Los Angeles, California; (3) Colorado Woman's College, Denver, Colorado; (4) The Junior College of Bridgeport, Connecticut; (5) Blackburn College, Carlinville, Illinois; (6) Wortburg College, Waverly, Iowa; (7) College of Paola, Paola, Kansas; (8) Logan College, Russellville, Kentucky; (9) Mansfield Female College, Mansfield, Louisiana; (10) National Park Seminary, Forest Glen, Maryland; (11) Gulf-Park College, Gulf-Park, Mississippi; (12) Saint Teresa College, Kansas City, Missouri; (13) Parker Collegiate Institute, Brooklyn, New York; (14) Brick Junior College, Brick, North Carolina; (15) Martha Washington College, Abington, Virginia.

<sup>4</sup>Koos, L. V. *The Junior College*, Vols. I and II. Education Series, Number 5. University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, May, 1924.



hours offered in each subject group, the frequency of colleges making no offering in these groups, the range of semester hours offered, and the average per cent of total curriculum offerings in each case.

### 1. Number of Semester Hours Offered

Are the junior colleges studying their job so that they may be able to concentrate more surely on the attainment of the specific objectives they have decided on? Table I seems to show that, so far as both types of institutions are concerned, there is an increase from a total

of 215 to 253 semester hours. But this increase is seen to occur among the private junior colleges (columns 3 and 6). The public institutions have narrowed their course offerings from 255 to 214 hours (columns 2 and 5).

Evidently, the public junior colleges are concentrating on more specific objectives while the private schools are exhibiting more and, no doubt they hope, more attractive offerings for prospective matriculates. An examination of columns 3 and 6 seems to show that these increases are to be accounted for in such subjects as science, the social sciences,

Table 1. Seven Years' Change in the Curriculums of Public and Private Junior Colleges in Terms of Average Number of Semester Hours Offered

Subjects and Subject Groups	1927-28			1924 (b)		
	Fifteen Public Institutions	Fifteen Private Institutions	Total	Twenty-three Public Institutions	Thirty-five Private Institutions	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Agriculture.....	0.0	1.2	0.6	5.8	1.1	3.0
2. Ancient languages .....	9.2	15.2	14.1	12.8	19.5	16.9
3. Art .....	9.5	18.5	14.9	3.1	4.9	4.2
4. Bible and religion.....	1.6	8.1	6.1	0.0	3.9	2.3
5. Commerce .....	21.2	30.0	23.7	26.7	0.5	10.9
6. Education .....	10.1	17.7	14.7	5.3	9.7	7.9
7. Engineering and industry.....	10.2	0.0	5.1	16.6	10.7	13.1
8. English .....	14.6	17.3	15.9	17.7	16.0	17.1
9. Extension and night school.....	1.6	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.0
10. Home economics .....	7.0	15.1	13.7	9.8	16.0	12.5
11. Mathematics .....	17.4	13.2	15.3	19.3	13.6	15.9
12. Modern foreign languages.....	32.0	36.9	34.4	42.1	38.6	40.0
13. Music .....	5.6	25.1	14.2	8.8	4.4	6.2
14. Philosophy .....	3.9	6.2	4.8	2.4	1.9	2.1
15. Physical education .....	3.5	9.3	4.9	2.7	2.4	2.5
16. Psychology .....	5.8	6.2	5.9	3.1	2.9	3.0
17. Public speaking .....	5.9	16.3	10.6	3.0	2.8	2.9
18. Science .....	32.9	26.3	29.3	44.5	22.6	29.9
19. Social studies .....	22.1	26.4	24.2	27.5	18.9	22.3
20. Other occupational .....	.....	.....	.....	3.8	0.7	1.9
Total .....	214.1	289.0	253.2	255.0	192.0	214.6

a. Two public colleges offered French and German on sufficient demand; one offered Latin; one advanced physics, credit arranged; two private schools offered advanced expression courses; four public schools required physical education for graduation, but no credit was given.

b. Koos, L. V. *The Junior College*, Vols. I and II. Education Series Number 5. University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, May, 1924.

religion, philosophy and psychology, physical education, music and art, commerce, and education, with the greatest changes in music and art, commerce, education, and physical education. Columns 2 and 5 seem to show that reduction in the course offerings in the public junior college curriculum has occurred in such subjects as English, the languages, mathematics, science, social sciences, music, agriculture, commerce, engineering, and home economics, with the greatest changes in science and ancient and modern languages.

## 2. Curriculum Offerings Dropped

It is important to know a little more definitely just what these changes in course offerings are. Some indication of this may be had from a check of subjects dropped from the programs of courses, those which were not omitted from catalog statements analyzed by Koos. The facts of this inquiry are given in Table II. The first very apparent fact is (columns 4 and 7) that, when both public and private colleges are considered, no subject group was or is not represented. But there are but two zero per

Table II. Seven Years' Change in the Proportion (Per Cent) of Public and Private Junior Colleges Making No Offering in Twenty Subjects

Subjects and Subject Groups 1	1927-28			1924 (b)		
	Fifteen Public Institutions 2	Fifteen Private Institutions 3	Total(a) 4	Twenty-three Public Institutions 5	Thirty-five Private Institutions 6	Total 7
1. Agriculture .....	100.0	93.3	96.7	73.9	94.3	86.2
2. Ancient languages .....	60.0	13.3	36.7	34.8	2.9	15.5
3. Art .....	73.3	60.0	66.7	69.6	60.0	63.8
4. Bible and religion.....	66.7	26.7	46.7	100.0	40.0	63.8
5. Commerce .....	66.7	86.7	76.7	26.0	94.3	67.2
6. Education .....	60.0	40.0	50.0	73.9	17.1	39.7
7. Engineering and industry.....	46.7	100.0	73.3	26.0	82.9	60.3
8. English .....	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.3	0.0	1.7
9. Extension and night school....	20.0	100.0	60.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
10. Home economics .....	86.7	33.3	60.0	47.8	40.0	43.1
11. Mathematics .....	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.3	2.9	3.4
12. Modern foreign languages.....	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
13. Music .....	40.0	53.3	46.7	69.6	62.8	65.5
14. Philosophy .....	53.3	66.7	60.0	56.5	54.3	55.2
15. Physical education .....	0.0	66.7	33.3	47.8	65.7	58.6
16. Psychology .....	26.7	13.3	20.0	34.8	31.4	32.8
17. Public speaking .....	26.7	46.7	36.7	56.5	68.6	63.8
18. Science .....	6.7	.....	33.3	4.3	5.7	5.2
19. Social studies .....	.....	.....	.....	4.3	0.0	1.7
20. Other occupational .....	.....	.....	.....	73.9	97.1	87.9
Approximate median .....	33.0	37.0	22.0	41.0	36.0	50.0

a. Two public colleges offered French and German on sufficient demand; one offered Latin; one advanced physics courses, credit arranged; two private colleges offered advanced expression courses; four public schools required physical education for graduation, but no credit was given.

b. Koos, L. V. *The Junior College*, Vols. I and II. Education Series Number 5. University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, May, 1924.

cents in column 7 and 5 in column 4, and this means that the modern curriculum is more inclusive. The medians point to the same fact also, seeming to show that the curriculum now is perhaps as wide again as it was formerly. Of course, this table is but the reverse of Table I.

The really interesting figures are the 100 percents, representing subjects and subject groups which are not found at all in the course offerings. It will be seen that seven years ago there was but one subject, "Bible and Religion"; and that this was not discovered among the course offerings of 23 public junior colleges examined. Column 2 gives the present contrast. But two-thirds of all such schools now omit such courses. The shift among private colleges is indicated in columns 3 and 6. "Bible and religion" was omitted formerly by nearly twice as many institutions as omit now. As to "Agriculture," item 1 shows practically the same curriculum emphases among private colleges, but while none of the public curriculums examined include it now only three-fourths of them omitted it formerly. Another course group which one would think worth inquiry in a liberal arts college is item 7, "Engineering and industry." This seems to have been eliminated by the private junior college, but to be still retained by the public institution, although twice the proportion of schools omit it. As to "Extension and night school" work (item 9), while they were included in the work of both types of colleges formerly, now all private institutions have given it up and one-fifth of the public junior colleges.

### 3. Range of Subject Offerings

Another measure of the present status of the junior college curriculum as compared with seven years ago is in terms

of least and greatest number of semester hours offered in each subject and subject group. Table III gives this. It is seen that, while agriculture is not now offered by the public junior college (column 2), formerly from none to 29 semester hours were offered (column 5); and that the total range for both types of schools was twice as wide as now (columns 4 and 7).

The most significant figures are those at the bottom of the table representing central tendencies for all twenty subject groups. On the whole, one notices a marked reduction of range—from 574 to 317 semester hours, and this appears to be the general tendency. However, private institutions (columns 3 and 6) seem to be narrowing their range of offerings more markedly than public junior colleges (columns 2 and 5), and certain exceptions appear among the twenty subject items above. It is significant that all of these are found among the course offerings of the private junior college, and that they affect nine important subject groups. The offering in "Commerce" has increased in range most of all, a total range of 51 hours. Next, courses in "Music" with a range 26 hours broader. Then "Bible and religion" with eighteen hours, "Ancient languages" with seventeen, "Public speaking" with sixteen, the "Social studies" with fourteen, and "Physical education," "Philosophy," and "Psychology" with less than ten each. This mixture of increased emphasis, if it amounts to that, is hard to explain. These supposedly liberal arts colleges seem to be leaning toward vocational objectives first of all, but at the same time emphasizing the arts, ethics, and formal discipline.

### 4. Subject Emphases

But the most understandable measure



Table III. Seven Years' Change in the Curriculums of Public and Private Junior Colleges in Terms of the Range in Semester Hours Offered

Subjects and Subject Groups 1	1927-28			1924 (a)		
	Fifteen Public Institutions 2	Fifteen Private Institutions 3	Total 4	Twenty-three Public Institutions 5	Thirty-five Private Institutions 6	Total 7
1. Agriculture .....	0- 0	0- 17	0- 17	0- 29	0- 34	0- 34
2. Ancient languages .....	0- 24	0- 50	0- 50	0- 41	0- 47	0- 47
3. Art .....	0- 26	0- 32	0- 32	0- 24	0- 50	0- 50
4. Bible and religion.....	0- 3	0- 30	0- 30	0- 0	0- 12	0- 12
5. Commerce .....	0- 47	0- 41	0- 47	0-114	0- 10	0-114
6. Education .....	0- 27	0- 31	0- 31	0- 56	0- 43	0- 56
7. Engineering and industry.....	0- 37	0- 0	0- 37	0- 74	0-230	0-230
8. English .....	5- 42	10- 64	5- 64	0- 33	6- 40	0- 40
9. Extension and night school.....	0- 14	0- 0	0- 14	0- 0	0- 0	0- 0
10. Home economics .....	0- 8	0- 24	0- 24	0- 57	0- 83	0- 83
11. Mathematics .....	3- 34	4- 25	3- 34	0- 33	0- 30	0- 33
12. Modern foreign languages.....	10- 80	6- 72	6- 80	18- 88	10- 90	10- 90
13. Music .....	0- 12	0- 58	0- 58	0- 88	0- 32	0- 88
14. Philosophy .....	0- 6	0- 12	0- 12	0- 10	0- 6	0- 10
15. Physical Education .....	0- 11	0- 27	0- 27	0- 12	0- 20	0- 20
16. Psychology .....	0- 9	0- 14	0- 14	0- 9	0- 10	0- 10
17. Public speaking .....	0- 14	0- 43	0- 43	0- 18	0- 27	0- 27
18. Science .....	0- 63	5- 44	0- 63	0- 99	0- 57	0- 99
19. Social studies .....	6- 43	10- 64	6- 64	0- 45	3- 43	0- 45
20. Other occupational .....	.....	.....	.....	0- 47	0- 25	0- 47
Total .....	59-376	87-332	59-376	94-628	54-627	54-623
Range .....	317	245	317	534	573	574

a. Koos, L. V. *The Junior College*, Vols. I and II. Education Series Number 5. University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, May, 1924.

of change in curriculum emphasis is expressed, perhaps, in terms of the average per cent of total offerings by subjects for each group of institutions studied. The results of this check for the beginning and the end of the seven-year period are given in Table IV. Nothing radically different from changes suggested above appears here. When both types of colleges are considered, it is seen that the following items constitute now a markedly larger proportion (more than 1 per cent) of total offerings than formerly; commerce, art, public speaking, music, education, and Bible and religion, while decreases are found among these; modern foreign language, English, engineering,

mathematics, ancient language, and agriculture.

When one examines the figures of the table carefully for evidence of decrease of course emphasis, the greatest changes are found among the private junior colleges. For example, "Modern foreign language" now constitutes nearly 6 per cent less of total offerings among private schools and less than 2 per cent less among public colleges. There is not much change in "English," but "Engineering" has been dropped from private curriculums and "Agriculture" from those of the public colleges. There is a marked reduction also in mathematics courses in private junior colleges, and

Table IV. Seven Years' Change in the Average Percentage of Total Curriculum Offerings of Public and Private Junior Colleges

Subjects and Subject Groups	1927-28			(1924 (a))		
	Fifteen Public Institutions	Fifteen Private Institutions	Total	Twenty-three Public Institutions	Thirty-five Private Institutions	Total
	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Agriculture .....		0.4	0.2	2.3	0.6	1.4
2. Ancient languages .....	4.3	5.3	5.6	5.9	10.2	7.9
3. Art .....	4.4	6.4	5.9	1.2	2.6	2.0
4. Bible and religion.....	0.7	2.8	2.4	0.0	2.0	1.1
5. Commerce .....	9.9	10.4	9.4	10.4	0.3	5.1
6. Education .....	4.8	6.2	5.8	2.1	5.1	3.7
7. Engineering and industry.....	4.8	0.0	2.0	6.5	5.6	6.1
8. English .....	6.8	6.0	6.3	6.9	8.8	7.9
9. Extension and night school.....	0.7	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
10. Home economics .....	3.4	5.2	5.4	3.8	8.3	5.8
11. Mathematics .....	8.1	4.6	6.0	7.6	7.1	7.4
12. Modern foreign languages.....	14.9	12.8	13.6	16.5	20.1	18.6
13. Music .....	2.6	8.7	5.6	3.5	2.3	2.9
14. Philosophy .....	1.8	2.1	1.9	0.9	1.0	1.0
15. Physical education .....	1.6	3.2	1.9	1.0	1.3	1.2
16. Psychology .....	2.7	2.1	2.3	1.2	1.5	1.4
17. Public speaking .....	2.8	5.6	4.2	1.2	1.5	1.4
18. Science .....	15.4	9.1	11.6	17.5	11.8	13.9
19. Social studies .....	10.3	9.1	9.6	10.8	9.8	10.4
20. Other occupational .....				1.5	0.4	0.9
Total .....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

a. Koos, L. V. *The Junior College*, Vols. I and II. Education Series Number 5. University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, May, 1924.

in "Science" and "Ancient language" courses in private institutions.

Evidence of increase of interest in certain subject groups seems to be more easy to find among private junior college curriculums, the most outstanding case being "Commerce" (item 5) which formerly constituted less than 1 per cent of all offerings and now is over 10 per cent. Large increases are seen also in "Music," "Public Speaking," and "Art" in private curriculums, and it will be noted that the increase in "Art" offerings is about the same in both types of institutions. "Public Speaking" has an increase of over 4 per cent in private schools, and less than 2 per cent in public. "Education" has nearly three times

the increase in course emphasis in public junior colleges than one finds in private, and this shift is highly significant.

### 5. Vocational Offerings in Arts Colleges

In the light of shifts in curriculum emphasis noted above in the case of certain subjects which seem from their titles to have vocational objectives, it is worth while to check the present status of four of them: Agriculture, education, engineering, and commerce. It has been seen that "Agriculture" suffered a decrease of interest in both types of colleges and that "Engineering" has been dropped from the private curriculums. On the other hand, offerings in teacher-training have



increased noticeably in public junior colleges, and "Commerce" to a greater degree of difference among private institutions. Table V summarizes the place these four subject groups now occupy among junior college curriculums. It is seen that for all of them, their emphasis is not

nished annually from 38 of the two-year institutions. Mangum finds that at least 1 per cent of all Texas teachers have had all of their training in junior colleges, and that 20 per cent of them have had all or a part of their preparation there. The figures for certification (1927)

Table V. Curriculum Emphases in Four Vocational Course Groups in Fifteen Public and Fifteen Private Liberal Arts Junior Colleges, 1927-28

Subjects	Average number of semester hours			Number of colleges with no courses			Average per cent of total offering		
	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Agriculture .....		1.2	0.6	15	14	29		0.4	0.2
2. Education .....	10.1	17.7	14.7	9	6	15	4.8	6.2	5.8
3. Engineering and industry .....	10.2	0.0	5.1	7	15	22	4.8	0.0	2.0
4. Commerce .....	21.2	30.0	23.7	10	13	23	9.9	10.4	9.4
Approximate median..	10.0	10.0	.....	10	13	.....	5.0	3.0	.....

radically different in public and in private junior colleges. On the whole, the vocational outlook of courses offered is about the same in all types of liberal arts junior colleges, but one finds great differences among the four subjects themselves.

A recent study at Colorado State Teachers College<sup>5</sup> has made a careful check of the teacher-training function of the junior college. No two-year state teacher-training institutions were included in the investigation. An analysis was made of the course offerings of 101 junior colleges located in 24 states. A total of 72 were found with teacher-training courses, and 57 questionnaires returned from junior colleges in seventeen states reported 41 with teacher-training departments.

Mangum finds that in the state of Texas, the junior college is performing a distinct function in the preparation of public school teachers; about 1,000 being fur-

show that 22 private junior colleges enrolling 2,747 students furnished 765 certificated teachers, and thirteen state and public junior colleges enrolling 2,453 students furnished 348. He found also that 201 high school teachers had received the first training in junior colleges and continued their preparation later in four-year institutions, and 412 out of 6,345 who had either graduated from junior college or had not more than two years of college training.

In a situation where the public schools are using teachers with but two years of training beyond the high school, it is evident that in the present undesirable conditions maintaining in many states the junior college will do its share of so-called teacher training. But, in a state where standards for certification have been raised to more professional levels, the major part of the teacher-training program must be carried on in more thoroughly professionalized four-year institutions. Perhaps the two extremes indicated in this contrast may be found in the states of Texas and California.

<sup>5</sup>Mangum, W. A. *Teacher Training in the Junior College*. Master of Arts Thesis, Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado, 1928.